Examining Short-term ELT Teacher Education: An ethnographic case study of trainees' experiences

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Abstract

This thesis investigates the beliefs, experiences, behavior. and attitudes of twelve course participants on a Trinity College London TESOL Certificate course. Using a primarily ethnographic methodology, data in the form of unstructured and semi-structured interviews, course lectures, teaching practice journals, course documents, and field notes were collected and analyzed to offer insight into the design and implementation of short-term teacher education. Course participants were followed for nine months after the course to provide follow-up data, and six experienced ELT teachers were also interviewed to add long-term perspective. The results demonstrated that the length of the Certificate course necessitates a prioritization of practice over theory and a focus on behavioral change at the expense of examination and critique of course participants' pre-existing beliefs. Trainees emerge from short-term teacher training with confidence well in place in most cases but lacking in an understanding of the foundations of informed language teaching, an explicit. in-depth knowledge of language. and a view of the field as a profession worthy of long-term commitment. A noteworthy gap was discovered between course participants' lack of desire for further professional development and more experienced teachers' insistence that additional support and training is crucial beyond the short course. The findings of the study point to a need for a radical restructuring of the short course, which takes into account a changing global market and current understanding of teacher change and the significance of teachers' beliefs.

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Abbreviations and Conventions

1. Abbreviations

CELTA	Certificate in English Language Teaching to Adults
CertTESOL	Trinity College London TESOL Certificate
CLIL	Content and Language Integrated Learning
CTEFLA	Certificate in Teaching English as a Foreign Language to Adults
DELTA	Diploma in English Language Teaching to Adults
(T)EFL	(Teaching) English as a Foreign Language
ELF	English as a Lingua Franca
ELT	English Language Teaching
ESL	English as a Second Language
EYL	English for Young Learners
ITE	Initial Teacher Education
PPP	Presentation – Practice - Production
RSA	Royal Society of Arts (Examination Board)
TCL	Trinity College London
(T)ESOL	Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages
UCLES	University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate (the co-organisers of the CELTA along with the RSA Examinations Syndicate)

2. Audio Transcript Conventions

XXX	Inaudible
...	Omission of dialogue
[ ]	Insertion of action, contextual cue, or change in wording to protect privacy (i.e. [everyone laughs] or [tutor's name])
-	False start

3. Other Conventions

3.1 Conventions for referring to people/places involved in the study

People/places involved in the study:	Referred to as:
Atlantic University	AU
The teacher trainers	Course tutors, tutors
The course participants	Course participants, the other participants, CPs
The experienced teachers	The experienced teachers
The learners of English	students

3.2 Conventions for referring to elements of the course

Teaching Practice	TP, Practicum
Teaching Practice Journal	TP Journal
Distance Learning	DL
Language Awareness Components	LA, LA components

3.4 Conventions for Citing Data

Type of Data	Explanation of citation method	Example of citation
Audio Recordings	Cited by date recorded	(AR, July 2, 2005)
TP Journal Entries	Cited by lesson entry (LE) number	(Rebecca, TP Journal, 5LE)
Field Notes	Cited by date	(FN, July 2, 2005)
Three-month Follow-up Questionnaire	Cited by using the abbreviation 'FQ'	(Kate, FQ)
E-mails	Cited by date received	(Carl, E-mail, March 22, 2006)

SECTION I: BACKGROUND

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Background to the Study

The field of English Language Teaching (ELT) has continued to expand in recent years, resulting in a growing body of research in second language learning and teaching (see Swales, 1993; Graddol, 2000; Jarvis, 2005). Hinging on the understanding that the foundation of language teaching is teacher education (Freeman & Johnson, 1998: 398), ELT research has also turned to the area of teacher education in the hopes that by further understanding and strengthening teacher education, language teaching and thus student learning will also be bolstered.

Although early language teacher education research, reflecting the prevalent belief in a causal link between teacher behavior and student learning, focused on the importance of instilling 'correct' classroom performance in teachers, the emergence of notions like Donald Schön's (1983, 1987) 'new epistemology of practice' shifted the focus of research away from classroom performances to 'the intellectual processes and structures that mediate them' (Hodkinson & Harvard 1994: 6). The investigation of teachers and their beliefs and decisions, an area of teacher research known as teacher cognition, seeks to bridge the connection between teachers' thoughts about teaching and their classroom behavior (Gatbonton, 1999: 46). Further, research into the interplay between teachers' knowledge, beliefs, and behavior as well as how these change throughout teachers' careers has shed further light into how teacher education should be structured and what influences teachers' decision making (see Guskey, 1986; Hopkins et al., 1994; Flores, 2005).

Despite growing interest in teacher education, Freeman and Johnson (1998) noted that only nine percent of the featured articles in the *TESOL Quarterly*'s indexes from 1987 - 1997 were listed under the subject 'teacher preparation'. Indeed, although this topic has come under more scrutiny by researchers and educators alike, it remains a priority in the TESOL field, and there is still much work to be done and (see Freeman & Richards, 1993; Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Roberts, 1998; Duff & Bailey, 2001). Further, the need for empirical studies regarding teacher training continues to rise as universities around the world add TESOL Endorsement and training programs to their curriculum.

Teacher education research has become increasingly important, therefore, for a number of reasons, the most obvious of which is that examining teachers themselves, their beliefs in particular, helps researchers and teacher educators to understand better the complex nature of the classroom (Freeman, 1993: 496; Gatbonton, 1999: 46). However, perhaps foremost among reasons for considering teacher education as a topic of research is the seeming inflexibility of teachers' beliefs in the face of training, given teachers' experiences as pupils or their 'apprenticeship of observation' (Lortie, 1975).

All this being true, the importance of understanding the inner workings of teachers and how these are impacted by teacher education cannot be understated. As Bramald et al. write,

> If belief systems are as influential on classroom practice and as resistant to change as recent research suggests, and if the beliefs are often unrealistic or inappropriate in the classroom, then it is important that teacher educators look at the beliefs that student teachers bring with them to the course, and if, and how, they are changed as a consequence of it. (Bramald et al., 1995: 23).

Indeed, if previous hidden habits, beliefs, assumptions and norms are not made explicit, questioned and challenged (Freeman, 1991), teachers' pre-training cognitions regarding L2 teaching may be influential throughout their career (Borg, 2002), despite training efforts.

This study focuses on one of the most popular methods of entry into the field of ELT: the short teacher training course. Begun by John Haycraft in the early 1960's as a solution to teachers' criticism of the highly theoretical nature of available ELT teacher education, the one-month TESOL teacher training course has spread worldwide, bolstered by mass market appeal, and is offered by an estimated 400 course providers[1] to over 10,000 participants annually (Green, 2005). However, criticism of such courses (see Davis, 1990; Kerr, 1994; Borg, 2002; Baxter, 2003; Ferguson & Donno, 2003) has raised questions regarding the effectiveness of such a short course, particularly given the backdrop of our understanding of the inflexibility of teachers' beliefs.

Despite such criticism, the short ELT course seems reluctant to give up its status as the 'darling' of the ELT community. Hailed by the University of Cambridge ESOL Examinations (UCLES) and Trinity College London, the two most prominent short course validators in the industry, as a hands-on, highly practical, skills-based, basic toolkit, the one-month teacher training course is quite popular with teachers, who have

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[1] This number includes only CELTA and CertTESOL course providers and not the hundreds of providers who offer their own 'version' of the short training course. This number continues to grow as, for instance, colleges and universities in the United States add summer TESOL training courses to their curriculum.

long viewed the practical elements of teacher education, like the practice teaching component, to be the most valuable component (Lortie, 1975; Alatis et al.. 1983; Ashworth, 1983; Brown, 1983; Brumfit, 1983; Celce-Murcia, 1983; Clarke, 1983). In this way, the short course meets consumer demand for a focus on practice while at the same time offering potential ELT teachers the opportunity to make a career change swiftly and without a great deal of time or financial commitment. The market-driven nature of the short course alone combined with current understanding of the nature of teacher beliefs and teacher change ·warrants investigation into the one-month ELT training course's impact on trainees. The following sub-section will examine the aims and approach of this research project.

1.2 Aims of the Study and Research Approach

Given the dearth of available research examining the short course from an insider's point of view and following course participants after the course, this study seeks to examine not only the philosophy and assumptions inherent in the short course but also the experiences of course participants and how the short course influences their beliefs and behavior. In so doing, this study offers recommendations for how the short course might be improved and how an understanding of this type of teacher education might impact the broader field of teacher education in general.

Because the practice teaching component of teacher education has long been regarded by trainees as the most valuable element of teacher training, I am interested in how this prioritization of practice teaching influences the extent to which other course elements shape course participants during the course and in the following nine months. Further, I am interested in whether or not practice teaching is prioritized by course objectives and design and course tutors, how it is structured and implemented, and how it aids and/or impedes teacher change, particularly in beliefs about teaching and learning. Because time constraints limit my ability to follow course participants beyond one year, my research aims include the additional question of what the teacher training and career stories of experienced teachers reveal about the short course's long-term effects.

This study does not attempt to criticize or evaluate one set of individuals or one course provider. As subsequent chapters will detail, the course tutors at the CertTESOL research context were knowledgeable, the majority being excellent teachers who were

cooperative, helpful, and concerned with the welfare of the course participants. Their course was obviously planned with great detail and consideration and included elements not required by Trinity College London, demonstrating a desire to increase the rigor of the course beyond the constraints of the four-week course (see Chapter 8). That said, a study examining the ideas and assumptions inherent in a short teacher education course cannot be conducted well without looking at a particular course provider.

This project's qualitative research design stems from a particular way of viewing the world which is interpretive rather than normative, open-ended rather than controlled, and subjective rather than objective (Holliday, 2006: 5-7). The complexity of a teacher education program and indeed any social context cannot be reduced to a set of objective truths, the goal of quantitative research, but rather must be explored, interpreted, and ultimately only partially understood by the researcher. Rather than attempting to control the variables in such a context, the researcher describes and uses them to construct an impression of what exists and occurs there. The process of 'showing one's workings' (Holliday, 2006: 8), which involves explicitly and reflexively writing about each stage of research, allows the researcher to maintain validity whilst honestly portraying the inevitable subjectivity of the project.

In keeping with this perspective, the research design of this project employs elements of ethnographic research, namely participant observation, data-driven data analysis, thick description, and reflexivity (see Chapter 6 for further discussion) to gain insight into the complexities of what course participants bring to teacher education courses, how their beliefs affect and are affected by course content and objectives, and what the participants ultimately take away with them. By becoming a course participant and adopting an insider's point of view, I will be in a better position, at least in part, to view the course as the other participants do and thus reveal more about how such a course aids or impedes teacher change.

1.3 Overview of the Thesis

This thesis is divided into three sections with a total of eleven chapters. Section I contains Chapters 1 through 5, the first of which is a basic introduction. Chapter 2 provides the bulk of the literature review for the thesis, including a discussion of the key terms 'teacher training', 'teacher education', and 'teacher development'. This chapter also examines the four models of teacher education and the theory versus practice

debate which distinguishes each and contains a further two sub-sections on research trends in teacher education as well as the emergence of research in the area of teacher cognition and teacher beliefs. Chapter 3 makes explicit the various entry-level second language teacher education programs in the UK, namely the CELTA and CertTESOL, and provides details from the literature regarding how these have been lauded and criticized. Chapter 4 provides background into the practice teaching component of teacher education, including variations on its structure and content as well as research examining the Practicum specifically. Finally, Chapter 5 sums up Section I by detailing the current gap in the literature in terms of both short term teacher training and the Practicum component.

Section II details the research design, methodology and implementation of this thesis. Chapter 5 provides the specific research aims and their rationale. Chapter 6 reveals the methodology driving this project and specifies the data collection and analysis methodology, the meeting of ethical guidelines, and anticipated limitations and obstacles to this project. The last chapter in Section II, Chapter 7, provides details regarding what occurred during research design implementation, including the time frame of research, issues regarding obtaining access and working with course participants and tutors, and obstacles and ethical issues.

Section III forms the bulk of the thesis and lays out the research findings. Chapter 8 focuses on the specific research context and examines the implicit and explicit assumptions behind the short ELT training course. Chapter 9 provides findings related to the Practicum component, including issues surrounding a prioritization of practice over theory as well as how the Practicum was structure and delivered and whether or not it achieved its purpose. Finally, Chapter 10 offers findings related to the issue of teacher change on the short course.

This thesis concludes with Section III, which contains Chapter 11 and summarizes the research findings, makes explicit the limitations to this study, and provides implications and recommendations.

Chapter 2: Key Terms and Theoretical Underpinnings

Before providing particulars of short-term second language teacher education programs, this chapter will examine key terms and theories which underpin this research. The first section will consider the training vs. education debate and establish how these terms will be used in the chapters that follow. This will be followed by an overview of the predominant concepts of teaching and teacher education, including a brief look at the theory versus practice debate. The third section will provide a summary of the salient research trends in teacher education, exploring the transition from a process-product approach towards a macro approach to research. Finally, some attention will be given to the literature on teacher cognition and teacher beliefs, resulting in an explanation of how the term 'belief' will be defined and used in this context.

2.1: Teacher Training, Education, and Development

Central to the discussion of teacher education is defining the types of words used when discussing it. Some writers choose to talk about teacher education; others choose teacher training, teacher preparation, or teacher development. However, there seems to be some consensus on how the terms are differentiated, and although some writers prefer to use them interchangeably, it remains important to clarify them for the reader.

Diane Larsen-Freeman (1983) provides a helpful breakdown of the general differences between the terms training and education.

Training is (where):

- situation oriented. Since the trainer can customize the training to the situation, finite objectives can be specified.
- content is matched to the finite objectives. Information is transmitted from the trainer to the trainee.
- trainees are expected to do as the trainer does. Conform to the model!
- criteria for success can be specified. Measurement of the success and the knowledge are immediately attainable.

Educating is (where):

- individual oriented. Objectives are more general and are stated in terms of developing an individual's skills to function in any situation.
- independent learners are created .
- students learn how to set objectives, define problems, generate hypotheses, gather information, make decisions, and assess outcomes. The emphasis is on process, not product.
- objectives are more open-ended, so success is more relative than absolute. (Larsen-Freeman, 1983: 265)

Crandall agrees with this distinction, defining training as oriented towards solutions and 'based on practical techniques to cope with predictable events' (Crandall, 2000: 36). She goes on to define education as oriented towards problems with awareness of principles of educational theory. As Widdowson writes,

> [Training] seeks to impose a *conformity* to certain established patterns of knowledge and behavior, usually in order to carry out a set of clearly defined tasks, where the problem is recognizably a token of a formula type. Education, however, seeks to provide for *creativity* whereby what is learned is a set of schemata and procedures for adopting them to cope with problems which do not have a ready-made formulaic solution. (Widdowson, 1983: 19)

Finally, Ellis (1994: 187) defines teacher education as a way of involving teachers in developing their own theories of teaching and learning as well as becoming more self-aware and self-critical. He also defines teacher training as the transmission of classroom techniques and skills to student teachers.

Freeman (1989: 39) defines training similarly and adds to the discussion by considering the differences between teacher education and training by noting that teacher education is best understood as superordinate to all other terms used in the field of education and by introducing another term, teacher development. In much of the literature, teacher development has been defined as a process that occurs in-service. Roberts (1998: 222), for example, notes in his discussion of INSET (in-service teacher education) that development 'presupposes competence in basic skills or knowledge', implying that it occurs after an initial teacher education course and some teaching experience.

However, broader definitions occur which raise questions about the content of pre-service teacher preparation. No doubt pre-service teachers have little to no teaching experience from which to develop, but at least an attitude of development can be encouraged, founded on practice teaching and past learning experience. As Freeman argues, the purpose of teacher development is 'to generate change through increasing or shifting awareness' (Freeman, 1989: 40; see also Head & Taylor, 1997: 18). In simpler

terms, development is a process where content stems from learners' experience rather than from teachers' transmission (Freeman, 2001: 40; see also Roberts, 1998: 222). Some have proposed that the process of reflective practice (see Chapter 2.2.2.4) in teacher preparation courses can be used to aid in early development. De Sonneville (2007) suggests, for example, that by observing their own teaching behavior and articulating reflections on their observations, teacher trainees can begin the teacher development process so crucial to long-term commitment to the field and professionalism.

So which term should be used in the context of a discussion on short ELT teacher courses: training, education, development? Indeed, as the terms one choses to refer to a particular course can imply an evaluative stance, this decision is trickier than it seems. In the context of this paper, the term 'teacher education' will be used in the context of a general discussion of teacher preparation without reference to one specific type of course (as in Chapter 2.2). However, following the trend in the literature (see Davis, 1990; Borg, 2002, 2005; Green, 2005) the term 'teacher training' will be used when referring to short-term teacher preparation. Although some would no doubt argue that some short-term courses could appropriately be termed 'teacher education', Crandall's (2000) definition in the previous paragraph captures the essence of short-term courses and their focus on practical techniques, and so the term 'training' is justifiably accurate in a broad sense. The term 'development' will be used primarily to refer to the professional development teachers undertake in-service, although Chapter 11 will argue that such development can and should begin pre-service.

2.2: Conceptions of Teaching and Teacher Education

This section will provide clarification regarding two major issues under discussion in the field of teacher education. First, a brief outline of the theory versus practice debate will provide the groundwork for subsequent chapters on a prioritization of practice in short-term teacher education (see Chapter 9.2). This will be followed by a presentation of four models of teacher education, which will shed light on the underlying assumptions about teacher education in the short-term TESOL Certificate course.

2.2.1 Theory vs. practice: The heart of the teacher education debate

Since its conception, the field of Education has fought for respect as a profession. Largely viewed as an occupation for women and members of the lower classes of society (Britzman, 2003), teaching in general has struggled to maintain a balance between connection to educational theory (i.e. generalizations produced through scholarly research; see Buchmann, 1984: 422), which might lend it greater admiration from more 'respectable' fields such as science, and practical application of such theory to the real, everyday classroom. Speaking about general education, Britzman notes three 'key dynamics' at work, which include the 'elevation of academic knowledge over practice', the devaluing of educational knowledge due to its lack of 'scientific' stature, and 'the deeply held myth that one learns to teach solely by experience' (Britzman, 2003: 39). As educational theory has evolved, its struggle to remain legitimate theoretically as well as practically has resulted in several major trends or philosophies of teacher education, which will be discussed in detail in the following sub-sections. These trends all seek to answer the question: Should teacher education focus on theory or practice or both and how?

Likewise, language teacher education has seen similar trends seeking to answer the same question. 'The distinction between theory and practice is ubiquitous...In our field we are accustomed to the terms "linguist" and "applied linguist", "researcher" and "teacher"' (Clarke, 1983: 107). Speaking about language teacher education, Lange (1990: 252) points out that because the field of Education has historically been a fusion of a variety of fields (Psychology, Philosophy, History, for example) rather than a field in its own right, and because it is generally regarded as a misapplication of those fields, Education has been avoided in favor of Linguistics, which has been seen as a purer science and thus more legitimate. In other words, seeking to avoid the devaluation that the field of Education has received in the past, language teacher education has, in the past, sought to answer the often-heard theory vs. practice question in favor of linguistic theory. As a result, many initial language teacher training courses, particularly those in university settings, seeking similarity with other 'more scientific' departments, treat teaching principles as subjects for academic lectures, thereby opening themselves to criticism for their lack of practicality (Brumfit, 1983: 59).

Understanding that teaching is not simply the application of research and that fields such as linguistics and psychology cannot provide all the answers (Ashworth, 1983: 43), some pre-service teacher education programs, both language teaching and otherwise, have shifted away from theory to satisfy pre- and in-service teachers who seem to resist theory, as it has been historically defined, as being impractical for their everyday classroom needs (Hedgcock, 2002). Both pre- and in-service teachers in all subject areas have become notorious for complaining that theory is irrelevant (Lortie, 1975; Alatis, Stern & Strevens, 1983; Ashworth, 1983; Brown, 1983; Brumfit, 1983; Celce-Murcia, 1983; Clarke, 1983). Writing about second language teachers specifically, Brown writes,

> How many times have we heard our teachers-in-training ask, "What does all this 'theory' have to do with what we're going to do in the real world?" Typically, the question of relevance has focused on a gap between theory and practice... (Brown, 1983: 53)

Recent literature on language teacher education argues clearly that the issues and problems (i.e. teacher trainees' resistance to theoretical input) stemming from the privileging of either practice or theory have arisen as a result of faulty definitions and discussion of these terms. The notion, seemingly promoted by those who define theory solely as research knowledge, that a person can somehow be 'atheoretical' ignores a broader understanding of theory which encompasses both conceptual knowledge (i.e. research knowledge) and perceptual knowledge, including the particulars of classroom contexts, common sense, external policies and personal theories (Johnson, 1996b; Richards, 1999; Williams, 1999; Tsui, 2003). Essentially, some in the field of ELT have convincingly contended that all practice arises from theory, whether it is rooted in research or perceptual knowledge. 'When a [language teacher education] course is labelled as too theoretical, this probably means there is too much public theory without the opportunity to reconstruct or process it' (Williams, 1999: 15). When labelled too practical, a course is likely to have overlooked any uncovering of the influence of personal theory on practice and thereby failed to influence or instigate change. Under challenge is the old idea that no theory can come from personal knowledge, an idea stemming from a false contrast between the practical and the theoretical and the association of the personal with the subjective. (Johnson, 1989; Eraut, 1994).

Beyond a discussion of how 'theory' and 'practice' are defined, writers from both general and language education maintain that theory and practice cannot be neatly dichotomized (Schön, 1983; Johnson, M., 1989; Williams, 1999; Hedgcock, 2002;

Britzman, 2003). Clarke (1983), for example, argues that the field of education in general has historically placed theory and practice on separate ends of a spectrum as a means of simplifying what is, in fact, a very complex relationship. 'The result is a loss of insight and clarity as we attempt to understand experience while hampered by blind spots which we have created' (Clarke, 1983: 112). Trappes-Lomax and McGrath (1999), speaking about language teaching, note that uncritical acceptance of such a dichotomy is unhelpful, harmful, and possibly even malicious.

Schön (1983) also persuasively criticizes the implicit polarization of theory and practice so prevalent in general educational theory and insists that theory be embedded in practice, disallowing them to be learned in succession as separate entities. Going further, Tsui (2003) points out that scientific, objective theory cannot and indeed should not be applied to language teaching because classrooms are far too complex to be comparable to a set of defined circumstances which lead to a certain outcome. Teachers' 'skillful practice reveals a kind of knowing that does not stem from a prior intellectual operation...' but involves a capability to confront messy situations and determine the best course of action (Tsui, 2003: 44). In this way, Tsui calls for a reformation of the notion of educational theory, one which rejects the false ideal of objectivity and takes into account the experiences, knowledge, and beliefs of teachers (see also Freeman, 1989; Richards, 1990).

> 'To accept these reconceptualizations is to assume that teachers' knowledge is inherently their own, constructed by teachers themselves, and largely experiential. This being the case, it appears that theory can inform classroom practice only to the extent to which teachers themselves make sense of that theory (Johnson, 1996b: 767).

In this way, the predominant view in the field at present seems to be a rejection of the reliance on scientific, detached theory in both general and language teacher education for the sake of a theory based on experience and classroom context. This idea, though radical, finds support in the recent rise of teacher education as a reflective process which is discussed in a later section. Certainly, this is a welcome change, which finally recognizes the field of Education and ELT, by extension, as legitimate fields in their own right, which can define 'theory' on their own terms.

Beyond this discussion and however theory seems to be defined or fused to practice, teachers in both the fields of ELT and teaching in general have expressed continual frustration with the inclusion of theory in their education, arguing that the practical is what translates to the real classroom. Speaking specifically about PGCE

(Post-graduate Certificate in Education) but expounding on ideas which ring true more widely, Eraut (1994: 60) notes that in the progression of models of education and teacher education, 'the relationship between theory and practice appears not to have been further elucidated but to have been covered up by new labels and old accusations'. Although recent works (see Johnson, 2006) call for teacher educators to move away from the old practice-theory dichotomy in favor of classroom-based theory, negative connotations with theory continue to dominate, particularly in the field of short-term teacher education, as subsequent sections will explore (see Chapter 10.2).

2.2.2 Models of teacher education

This section will explore four major trends or conceptions of teaching and teacher education that have developed over the past fifty years. Although they did not appear consecutively, some influence both general and language teacher education today more than others, and most developed as a reaction against previous models, each with its own set of assumptions about teaching and learning.

> Whether implicitly or explicitly, every teacher preparation program embodies a philosophy of teaching that connects performance goals to training methods and course content. In the ideal case, each program requirement is covered by an explicit rationale that relates course content to specific outcomes for program graduates. Such a rationale incorporates (1) an articulated philosophy or theory of teaching and (2) statements relating that philosophy or theory to one or more specializations for which preparation is offered in the program. (Pennington, 1990: 132)

Like the well known global methods of language teaching such as The Silent Way and Communicative Language Teaching, each model constitutes a particular view on what constitutes teaching and learning. Speaking about language teaching, Trappes-Lomax and McGrath suggest that

> If theory and practice are perceived as separate entities, then the problem for teacher educators is a quantitative one: to get the 'balance' right. If they are perceived as different aspects of the same whole..., the problem is a qualitative one: to get the 'integration' right... (Trappes-Lomax & McGrath, 1999: 4)

Certainly, each of the models of teaching and teacher education presented here seeks to answer the theory vs. practice dilemma in their own way, each having its own strengths and weaknesses.

The following discussion of these models individually does not necessarily mean that they are assumed to be discrete or even consecutively appearing entities. As some have argued, the Reflective Practitioner model, for example, constitutes a values-based

approach (Richards, 1998: 43). And, as another example, although this thesis discusses the Applied Science model first, as Richards (1998) also does, Wallace (1991: 6) contends that the Craft model 'historically appeared on the scene' prior to the Applied Science model, reappearing some years later. That said, by examining these models in isolation, some understanding can be reached of the ways in which the field of ELT has been specifically influenced by each. Some brief discussion on the ways in which these models 'bleed' into one another will conclude this series of sub-sections.

2.2.2.1 Applied Science or Theory to Practice

In the Applied Science model, (sometimes called the Theory to Practice model or Educational Theory model), teaching is founded on educational research, which provides an empirical basis for teacher preparation (Pennington, 1990; Pennington, 1999; Crandall, 2000). Theories of learning are derived from research findings which are subsequently applied to practice. Hence, education amounts to being given the necessary techniques consistent with scientific generalizations or laws about teaching that could be applied to correct specific problems (Tom, 1987). Essentially, this model is 'a top down representation of teachers as consumers of knowledge that is produced elsewhere by researchers and theorists' (Kinginger, 1997: 8). Student-teachers are blank slates with no prior knowledge of teaching (Freeman, 2001, 2002), and the process of learning to become a teacher involves a process-product, transmission approach where the teacher transfers his/her knowledge into the trainee (Hodkinson & Harvard, 1994b: 56). 'What is privileged is an image of knowledge as "received" and an identity of the neophyte as an empty receptacle' (Britzman, 2003: 29). The predominant belief behind this model is that knowledge about teaching (theory) can and should be broken down into manageable chunks for easier absorption by student teachers, who can easily apply these chunks to classroom practice (Williams, 1999: 12).

The influence of this model is seen clearly in the field of language teaching particularly in the focus on 'methods' which stems from the late 1950s where foreign language teachers were led to believe that there was a method to remedy language teaching and learning problems (Lange, 1990: 253). Essentially, teaching is derived from research and supported by experimentation and empirical investigation (Zahorik, 1986). Zahorik identifies the application of this model to language teaching methods

such as Audiolingualism[2] in the 1960s and 1970s and Task-based Language Teaching[3], pedagogy which sought to operationalize learning principles found in research (Freeman & Richards, 1993: 195). Both of these language learning methods led to the development of teacher education schools which specialized in a particular method of teaching and thus a particular method of teacher education.

The Applied Science model has influenced teacher education in general towards the use of research to identify specific effective teaching behaviors and then train teachers to behave in those ways. In terms of language teacher education, research into topics such as teachers' question patterns and wait time (Long, 1984) and studies that observed effective teachers and sought to create a list of effective behaviors (Tikunoff, 1985; Blum 1984) were used to establish a teacher education curriculum that translated theory (defined as generalizations from educational research) into practice. Richards (1998) labels this approach to language teacher education as direct instruction and active teaching.

> The essential knowledge and skills of teaching from this perspective are an understanding of the theory or research principles that form the basis of the teaching strategy or methodology, and the ability to apply research-based principles in one's own teaching... [Teachers] should make their teaching conform to the research principles as far as possible. (Richards, 1998: 45)

Richards goes on to note that teacher education programs which hold to the science-research conception of teaching will emphasize the importance of research and research-based theory and the validity of certain theoretical principles over others. Essentially, language teaching and teaching in general is labor where teachers abide by guidelines set down by managers (Wise et al., 1984, cited by Skinner, 2002).

Justifiably so, in the past ten to fifteen years, this model has been criticized for its focus on a transmission-oriented approach to teacher education. Freeman (1989: 29) argues that an Applied Science model of education blurs the distinction between the knowledge-skill base and its possible uses in teaching. He goes on to identify two major misconceptions that result: language teacher education is then generally concerned with the transmission of knowledge, and transmission will lead to effective practice.

Unfortunately, this model still has a stronghold on teacher education, resulting in a domination of transmission, process-product formats at the university level (Schocker

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[2] Rooted in behaviorism, Audiolingualism, in keeping with the Applied Science model of education, views learning language as a process of habit formation and overlearning.
[3] Task-based language teaching was derived from second language acquisition research showing that 'successful language learning involves learners in negotiation of meaning...[where]...the learner receives the kind of input needed to facilitate learning' (Freeman & Richards, 1993: 36-37).

von Ditfruth & Legutke, 2002). As Grenfell (1998) argues, the fundamental problem with this model is that the human world is not like the scientific world but is rather unpredictable. More specifically, this model does not take into account the social setting of the school (Tom, 1987; Gebhard et al., 1990; Freeman, 1993; Pennington, 1999; Britzman, 2003) and assumes a set list of decisions that have worked according to research but may not be applicable to a particular classroom setting. All of the decision-making lies with the teacher education program and thus does not prepare student teachers to make decisions in their own classrooms (Gebhard et al., 1990).

Another problem identified with this model of teaching is its failure to account for the individuality of the teacher. Freeman notes, 'If a teacher's practice is seen solely as behavior and activity, it is possible to miss the complex basis of understanding on which the activity is based' (Freeman, 1993: 496). In other words, the daily thoughts and decision-making of the teacher are ignored in favor of a universally applied theory of teaching and learning. Broudy (1984: 4) makes an important argument against this idea when he says that teaching cannot be equated with or reducible to overt performances or behaviors.

> When knowledge is reduced to rigid directives that demand little else from the knower than acquiescence, both the knower and knowledge are repressed. Knowers are bereft of their capacity to intervene in the world, and knowledge is expressed as static and immutable. (Britzman, 2003: 29)

Although heavily criticized, this (theory-based) design dominates most teacher education programs. However, as Broudy (1984) notes, some programs have moved towards an occupational or craft approach to teacher education, elaborated on in a subsequent sub-section. However, as much of transmission in teacher education is unconscious (Smith, 2001), it remains to be seen if another model of teaching will loosen the hold that the Applied Science model has on teaching and teacher education.

2.2.2.2 Theory or Philosophy

Zahorik (1986) distinguishes the Theory or Philosophy conception of teaching from other models whereas some writers include it in the Applied Science model (see Wallace, 1991). However, Zahorik notes that this category is unique in that it is based on what ought to work or what is morally right rather than on empirical research. A theory based model of teaching involves 'systematic and principled thinking, rather than empirical investigation. [which] is used to support these forms of classroom practice'

(Zahorik, 1986: 201). Richards (1998) reinforces this distinction by noting that this idea of rational (or theoretical) conceptions derived from beliefs arose from dissatisfaction with the quest for the best method, which itself was a product of the Applied Science conception of teaching. He names the popular Communicative Language Teaching movement, commonly defined as building language teaching around the theory of communicative competence (Richards, 1998: 39), as an example of the rise in rational conceptions of teaching and teacher education. The proficiency movement in the 1980s, based on a 'nonempirical model of foreign language proficiency development' (Richards, 1998: 39), also represents a movement away from teacher education rooted in second language acquisition and linguistic theory and toward a form of teacher education rooted in the ideal.

The Theory or Philosophy model is also realized in the form of values-based approaches to education, developed from principles about teaching, learning, classrooms, and the role of education in society (Richards, 1998: 41). Tom (1987) suggests that the conception of teaching as a moral endeavor arose because of the unequal power distribution between teacher and student, creating a 'moral duty' on the part of the teacher to teach something enriching and worthwhile through the curriculum. Zahorik (1986) identifies several examples of this approach in the notions of critical theory, where curriculum was seen as lacking in the areas of inclusivity, and multiculturalism vs. cultural literacy, where education's job was to deliver a common core of values. In ELT, the action research movement, literature in the language curriculum, team teaching, humanistic approaches, and the learner-centered movement are all examples of a values-based approach to teaching and teacher education (Zahorik, 1986: 203). Richards elaborates on these humanistic approaches, noting their emphasis on 'the development of human values, growth in self-awareness and in the understanding of others, sensitivity to human feelings and emotions, and active student involvement in learning and in the way human learning takes place' Richards (1998: 42). Specific to ELT, he names the Silent Way movement, which resulted in a flurry of teacher education programs seeking to impart this educational ideal.

Like most models which seek to explain the complex process of teaching, the Theory or Philosophy model has its faults and critics. For obvious reasons, it has been condemned for its heavy reliance on a particular philosophy, value, or set of values not necessarily held by all teachers or teacher educators. Tom (1987) notes that while teaching probably does involve moral endeavors, it is not composed only of moral

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endeavors and sometimes involves strategies that are more of a craft than an issue of morality. Additionally, Freeman and Richards (1993) note that this model emphasizes the system of teaching over the individual teacher, ignoring contextual issues specific to the classroom, students, teachers, and institutions. And given the increasing importance placed on learning context and the learners' particular learning styles, I am not convinced that such a model is helpful. However, like the Applied Science model, this conception of teaching has its staunch followers, particularly in those who swear by the Communicative Approach to Language Teaching.

2.2.2.3 Craft or Apprenticeship

The conception of teaching as craft is a reaction against transmission models of teaching, which see knowledge as mechanical know-how (Johnson, M., 1989: 365; Crandall, 2000). Rather than on a set of overt behaviors, focus is placed on the individual teacher's personal practical knowledge learned through classroom experience, knowledge which is seen as context-sensitive and imaginative. In opposition to the context-less Applied Science and Philosophy models of teaching, teaching is seen as a mystical experience where, although specific acts of teaching cannot be replicated, the way to predict success in the classroom is to examine characteristics of effective teachers. Teachers are born, not made (Pennington, 1990). In this model, good teaching depends on the individual's skill and personality, characteristics inherent in some but not in others, and methods are not generalizable and therefore irrelevant (Zahorik, 1986).

This model of teaching is closely tied to the conception of teaching as art where work is creative and unconventional, and improvization is key (Skinner, 2002). Teaching as fine art is an aesthetic activity, an 'unfolding activity whose ends are often created in process, and can be seen as an activity influenced by events and contingencies more than by routines and prescriptions' (Tom, 1987: 11).

The Craft or Apprenticeship model translates to teacher education where trainees are placed immediately in schools where they can observe effective teachers. Teacher education means on-the-job training or watching others and absorbing what they do, hence ignoring any expression, formal or informal, of educational theory (Tickle, 1987; Grenfell, 1998; White, 1998). In the model, practice is all: the rest is individual (Grenfell, 1998).

However, like other models, critics have found fault with several aspects of this model. There is, for example, the idea that teachers are born, not made, an argument strongly opposed by some (Finocchario, 1983: 178). Additionally, although supporters of this model claim that it provides the context-specific learning lacking in other models, Hodkinson and Harvard (1994b) argue that, in fact, context is essentially ignored in favor of more generalizable attributes of good teachers. They cite the National Vocational Qualifications in England as an example of the Apprenticeship model and note that such a model is essentially behavioristic and concentrates too heavily on specific situations and a view of the teacher as a technician (Hodkinson & Harvard, 1994b: 67). Johnson (1989: 365) elaborates on this point by noting that knowledge is not specific to one teacher in one situation but should rather be conceived of as the means by which teachers adapt to and affect changes in the ever-changing classroom. Hence, rather than observing teachers in a specific setting and seeking to mimic their outward attributes, good teaching should be recognized as dependent on significant and normative principles (Tickle, 1987; Tom, 1987; Richards & Nunan, 1990; White, 1998; Pennington, 1999). Teacher education should

> use theory to guide and illuminate the meaning of observation and practical experience. In short, the intent of second language teacher education must be to provide opportunities for the novice to acquire the skills and competences of effective teachers and to discover the working rules that effective teachers use. (Richards & Nunan, 1990: 15)

Again, in discussions of this particular model, the issue of theory vs. practice divides the field of education and remains unresolved. With the tendency of the field to sway from one extreme to the other, this model remains an answer to the problem of a focus on scientific research but poses additional problems stemming from a complete absence of theory.

2.2.2.4 Reflective Practitioner

The model of the teacher as a reflective practitioner emerged as part of a shift from transmission, product-oriented theories to constructivist, process-oriented theories of learning, teaching, and teacher learning. This shift, which gained momentum in the 1980s and 90s, makes teachers a primary source of knowledge (Crandall, 200: 35). With a growing sense that language teacher education programs were failing to prepare teachers for the realities of the classroom, efforts were made to transform teaching through a focus on situated teacher cognition and practice and the development of

concrete, relevant linkages between theory and practice. Unlike the former models of teaching like Applied Science or Craft, 'The role of teacher education lies less in influencing teachers' behavior than in enabling them to rename their experience, thus recasting their conceptions and reconstructing their classroom practice' (Freeman, 1993: 496). Lortie (1975) played a powerful role in reshaping views of teaching and learning with his book *Schoolteacher*. He emphasized the importance of teachers' prior learning experiences and coined the phrase 'the apprenticeship of observation', spawning an interest in teachers' past experiences as learners and the role that this plays in the ways they themselves teach. Donald Schön (1983, 1987) offered 'a new epistemology of practice' to the growing sense of need to delve into teachers' cognition. Instead of knowledge embedded in theory, he argued that 'Our knowing is in our action' (1983: 49). His ideas were predicated on a holistic, creative view of the relationships between professionals and their contexts and the notion that new situations are made sense of from the interplay between old and new experiences. Teacher education shifted from a focus on classroom performances to 'the intellectual processes and structures that mediate them' (Harvard & Hodkinson, 1994a: 6).

This shift away from teaching as observable, repeatable actions toward a look at the invisible side of teachers in the form of their thoughts and ideas is, in part, an effort to recognize the role of context in methodology (Crandall, 2000). In this model of teaching and teacher education, knowledge is not tied to a specific context. Teacher trainees are encouraged to use their common sense to apply principles from experience and learning to the specific teaching situations in which they find themselves. So rather than relying on traditional tried-and-tested knowledge, emphasis is placed on formulating new kinds of knowledge by reshaping existing ideas based on past experience and then applying that new knowledge to new situations (Smyth, 1987; Zeichner, 1994; Grenfell, 1998; Freeman, 2001). In this way, teachers develop their own personal theories of teaching.

Practically applying the model to teacher preparation, Kinginger (1997) refers to Wallace's (1991) explanation of this process wherein trainee's existing conceptual schemata or mental constructs, influenced by received knowledge and experiential knowledge, are followed by practice and reflection, resulting in professional competence. He notes that this is certainly not an event that is ever fully completed but is constantly cycling and recycling. In in-service teacher education, trainees' experiences are traditionally captured in the form of reflection-on-action, wherein

teachers stand back to examine what they do after the fact or reflection-in-action, embedded in automatic, tacit knowledge. Afterwards, teachers are encouraged to reformulate and reproblematize their working knowledge of classrooms. 'As [they] engage in practice, [they] examine the theory behind it – [they] engage in reflection-in-action' (Smyth, 1987: 3). This type of activity is in keeping with the notion that classroom theory can only be drawn from or informed by classroom experience (Wright, 1990: 82). Trainees in pre-service teacher preparation are encouraged to engage in activities like writing autobiographies of their learning experiences and reflecting on their beliefs about teaching and learning. This shift away from the problem-solving approach of research-based teaching and toward a problem-setting or problem-posing approach emphasizes the cyclical nature of the reflective process, which continues throughout a teacher's professional career (Smyth, 1987: 4).

Although the above mentioned methods of reflection are probably the most widely used, a number of writers and researchers have commented on the diversity of application methods of the reflective practitioner model to teacher education. Zeichner and Liston (1990, cited in Zeichner, 1994: 20) identify five traditions of reflective practice in U.S. teaching and teacher education alone:

1. **academic:** reflection on subject matter and the representation and translation of subject matter knowledge to promote student understanding
2. **social efficiency:** emphasizes either the mechanical or thoughtful application of particular teaching strategies that have been suggested by a knowledge base external to the practice being studied
3. **developmentalist:** prioritizes teaching that is sensitive to students' interests, thinking, and patterns of developmental growth
4. **social reconstructionist:** stresses reflection about the institutional, social, and political contexts of schooling and the assessment of classroom actions for their ability to contribute toward greater equality, justice, and humane conditions in schooling and society
5. **generic tradition:** reflection in general is advocated without much specificity about the desired purposes and content of the reflection

Other writers have identified yet more conceptual orientations to reflective practice. Grimmett and Ratzlaff (1990, cited in Zeichner, 1994: 18) discuss the use of reflection as instrumental mediation of action, where knowledge is used to direct practice, reflection as deliberating among competing views of teaching, where knowledge is used to inform practice, and reflection as reconstructing experience, where knowledge is used to help teachers apprehend and transform practice. Valli (1990, cited in Zeichner, 1994) emphasizes approaches to reflective teacher education that stress the moral foundations of teaching, including the deliberative approach, the rational approach, and the critical

approach, which allow trainees to explore ideas like caring relations, teachers' voice, and inclusivity.

Certainly, the broad principles of the teacher as reflective practitioner have been broadly applied, which has left this model of teaching open for criticism. In particular, some have called for a clarification of the different terms (reflection-in-action, reflection-on-action, etc.) and for further research to examine exactly which forms of reflective practice are effective (Williams, 1999: 15). Grenfell (1998) elaborates on this notion by articulating specific problems with the model that stem from its ambiguity. He points out that reflection is context and person bound, so how can it be generalizable? Also, reflection does not really clarify the theory/practice balance. Are trainees supposed to reflect on concrete ides or experiential practice? Finally, reflection is dependent on individuals, who may be too reflective or perhaps not reflective at all.

Beyond its ambiguity, the Reflective Practitioner model of teaching, of course, draws criticism from some for its seeming abandonment of theory and research. Yates and Muchisky (2003) justifiably criticize this model for its focus on teacher beliefs at the expense of explicit knowledge about language and argue that second language acquisition research is relevant to language teaching and provides a much needed basis for reflection. They add that 'The call for reconceptualization privileges knowing how to teach over knowing the discipline knowledge' (Yates & Muchisky, 2003: 145).

Clearly then, despite its popularity, some critics remain unconvinced that the Reflective Practitioner model truly encompasses the nature of teaching and teacher education as it should. 'Reflection is frequently used and plays an important role in teachers' work, but the concept of reflection is not always clear' (Johansson & Koksmark, 2004: 357). However, like other major trends in teacher education, this model has offered valuable insight into the field of language teaching and language teacher education by shedding light on the role that past experience plays in what goes on in the classroom.

2.2.2.5 Discussion

As the introduction to this series of sub-sections noted, the purpose of discussing four models of teacher education in isolation is not to promote the view that these models exist in isolation, uninfluenced by others, but for the purpose of understanding the

influence of their underlying philosophy on language teacher education. As Richards notes,

> Although none of the conceptions of teaching...can be viewed as an ideal type that exists in pure form in the real world, different philosophies or conceptions of teaching embody quite different assumptions about what the essential skills of teaching are, and hence raise different issues in teacher preparation and teacher evaluation (Richards, 1998: 45).

As subsequent chapters will illustrate (see Chapters 8, 9), most teacher education courses adopt an eclectic philosophy, fusing together elements of several models, perhaps at times operating largely within a science/research framework or within a reflective practitioner framework.

Further, the different models presented here are not pure forms, even in a theoretical sense. As mentioned previously, the Reflective Practitioner model makes values-based assumptions about how teachers can and should improve their understanding of quality teaching (Richards, 1998: 43). One could argue that its roots also lie in a theory-based model of teaching, stemming from research on teacher beliefs. As another example, although the Craft model was revived in the 1970's as a reaction to the Applied Science model (Wallace, 1991: 7), it continued the legacy of theory-based models in its promotion of a top-down transmission of knowledge from one source (the master teacher to trainee) to another just as the Applied Science model had done (scholarly research to trainee). In these ways and others, these models represent attempts to improve upon the past but remain influenced by previous philosophies.

2.2.3 Defining and distinguishing language teaching

The previous sub-section discussed major trends in teaching and teacher education over the past fifty years and how these trends have, in turn, affected language teaching and language teacher education, in particular. This section will examine how language teaching is fundamentally different from teaching in general and how language teacher education, then, should be distinct.

Freeman (1989) identifies four constituents of language teaching:

1. **knowledge**, including subject matter, the students, and location
2. **skills** or what the teacher has to be able to do (present materials, give clear instructions, etc.)
3. **attitude**, which accounts for individual performance (the stance one adopts toward oneself, the activity of teaching, and the learners one engages in the teaching/learning process)

4. **awareness** or the capacity to recognize and monitor the attention one is giving or has given to something (a more holistic function than attention)

Certainly, from this description, language teaching is primarily dissimilar to general teaching in terms of the knowledge constituent. For example, knowledge of the students must include some knowledge of their first language and culture. Additionally, language teaching requires quite different teaching skills, including awareness of learner errors, appropriate treatment of those errors, and the presentation of language, among many. (Richards, 1998).

Tedick and Walker (1994) also help to identify a crucial difference between language teaching and teaching in general, noting that language learning cannot be defined by a body of subject-matter per se but rather by 'complex sociocultural relationships as they are reflected in verbal and nonverbal discourse' (Tedick & Walker, 1994: 301). Their point is well taken and emphasizes that although other disciplines, such as teaching in general, may encounter sociocultural issues, language teaching, in particular, is fundamentally interaction between people of different languages and cultures. Unfortunately, this interaction has been largely ignored in teacher education in favor of focus on the linguistic subject matter and teachers' skills. This has translated historically into language teacher education in terms of a focus on methodology and process-product training without much attention paid to intercultural awareness and communication skills. However, as the field of intercultural communication has seen rapid growth in the last quarter of a century (Fantini & Smith, 1997), increased attention, even in short-term teacher training, is being paid to this fundamental element of language teaching.

2.3: Teacher Education Research Trends

Although teacher education is still characterized by a great deal of residual focus on a process-product, transmission approach to teaching, times are changing. This section will examine this paradigm shift, laying the groundwork for a discussion on the emerging notions of teacher cognition and the role this plays in how teachers teach and how research uncovers this process.

2.3.1 Process-product research

Language teaching has roots in general teacher education (see 2.2.1), though this connection has not always been recognized or effectively utilized. For example, although several writers have commented that ELT research has, historically, drawn from work in general education in some respects (Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Freeman, 2002; Farrell, 2006), others have argued that more 'borrowing' needs to be done. Nunan and Lamb, for example, argue that 'language pedagogy needs to draw on its general educational roots for sustenance, which it has not always done' (Nunan & Lamb, 2001: 29). Lewkowicz (2000) agrees, noting in a discussion on language testing that lack of collaboration between ELT and other areas of educational research has resulted in wasted opportunities to learn from one another. Freeman and Johnson (1998: 401) estimate that language teaching research has tended to lag behind general education research by at least a decade.

Reinforcing this notion, Bernhardt and Hammadou's (1987) pivotal article summarized the body of research devoted to foreign or second language education and lamented the lack of substantial articles on teacher education, despite an increase in research on teacher education from other educational researchers. After examining what research already existed, Bernhardt and Hammadou compiled a list of the types of research that had been done. They discovered research which made/examined:

1. global position statements, such as:
    a. training vs. development
    b. isolating specific skills which foreign language teachers should possess
    c. offering concrete descriptions of current or future programs
2. teacher behaviors:
    a. targeting language fluency
    b. classroom management and lesson planning
    c. empathy, respect, self-awareness
3. training teaching assistants
4. training university professionals
5. in-service opportunities
6. supervision
7. methods course curricula

In general, the authors noted the lack not only of research into language teacher education but the lack of research into teachers' internal thought processes. Freeman (2002) echoes this, pointing out that prior to the 1970s, a process-product, transmission approach to teaching dominated, causing the research into both general and language teacher education to be dominated by the same. Essentially, process and content were treated as separate elements that teachers combined in order to teach, reflecting

elements of both an Applied Science and Craft Model of teaching (see Chapter 2.2.2.1 and 2.2.2.3). Certainly, there was some research that looked at teachers themselves, but even research examining issues like teachers' interests, attitudes, personalities, judgment, and self-control aimed to compare these attributes with those of 'successful' teachers, even though there was no evidence that these characteristics were what were bringing about success (Richards & Nunan, 1990).

By the 1970s, this type of research translated into a model for effective teaching or a list of effective teaching strategies, sometimes referred to as competency or performance-based teacher education (CBTE). Dunkin and Biddle's 1974 book *The Study of Teaching* gave great impetus to this process-product type of research, impacting both general and ELT education. In this work, they constructed a basic research model with four main variables, including presage variables (teacher characteristics, training, etc.), context variables (properties of pupils, school, community, etc.), process variables (observable actions of teachers and students, classroom, etc.), and product variables (immediate and long-term effects of teaching on pupil intellectual growth). This model essentially involved a microanalysis of teaching, looking at the particulars of teaching in terms of its directly observable characteristics (Richards & Nunan, 1990). Further, it focused on 'teaching process paradigms, where the emphasis of the research was on characterizing the observable teacher and student behaviors in the classroom as they related to measures of pupil growth' (Shulman, 1986a: 5) as well as the assumption that a direct and one-way relationship between teachers' actions and students' learning existed. Shulman (1986a) notes that this was consistent with a strong existing research tradition, rooted in applied behavioristic psychology and its attractively straightforward implications. Some of the key contributors to process-product research on teaching were Gage (1978), Brophy (1983), Evertson et al. (1983), Bennett et al. (1976), and Good (1979), all of whose research focused on what has become known as the 'teaching effectiveness approach'. As Schwartz notes, this approach

> was successful because it met the effectiveness criteria of administrators, school board members, and legislators. However, it did discourage teachers from incentive, judgment-based behavior in the classrooms. (Schwartz, 1996: 7)

Clearly, although this approach was important for defining the processes and procedures of teaching, at the same time, it ignored teachers' decision-making abilities and the role of student motivation among other things.

2.3.2 A Macro approach to research

The 1970s mark a critical point in teacher education. Researchers had begun 'to question the transmission, process-product approach (the causal link between the teacher's actions and the student's mental processes)' (Freeman, 2002: 2). Sylvia Ashton-Warner's book *Teacher* (1963) had helped the field to see teachers in general, and not just their behaviors, as being central in the classroom. Philip Jackson's *Life in Classrooms* (1968) and Dan Lortie's (1975) book *Schoolteacher* both argued for 're-centring educational research on teachers' experiences in the classroom' (Freeman, 2002: 3). Subsequently, research in the area of general teacher education (and later, language teacher education) adopted a macro approach which examined the whole context of classroom teaching and learning (Richards & Nunan, 1990).

The idea that teaching could be reduced to a set of observable behaviors was questioned by general education researchers such as Doyle (1978), Shulman (1986a, 1986b), Garrison (1988), and Zumwalt (1982, 1988), who began championing the Reflective Practitioner model of teacher education that argued for greater attention to teachers' internal thought processes (Schwartz, 1996). Research into domains such as sociocultural perspectives also began proliferating (Lee & Yarger, 1996). Research on teacher education grew increasingly qualitative and narrative in its approach, which was previously seen as non-research and unscientific, shifting from product to process (Lee & Yarger, 1996).

Translated into language teacher education research, the focus has slowly shifted from 'mastering content on the linguistic and meta-linguistic levels, practicing classroom methodologies and techniques, and learning theoretical rationales for them' (Freeman, 2002: 4) to focusing on issues like teachers' background, experience, and social context. Works such as Edwards and Furlong (1978), Shavelson and Stern (1981), Elbaz (1983), and Woods (1989) reinforced acceptance of the idea that teaching involves complex thought processes and that good teaching practice is relative to the context and to the teacher. These new conceptions of teaching, teacher education, and education research laid the groundwork for a new focus on teachers' thought and beliefs, which will be discussed in the next section.

2.4: Teachers' Thoughts and Beliefs

The previous section examined current trends in research in language teacher education, noting the shift in focus from teachers' behaviors to teachers' thinking and decision making, what Philip Jackson (1966) calls the 'hidden side of teaching'. When discussing teachers' thoughts, Clark and Peterson (1986) provide a helpful model of what constitutes teachers' thought processes. In their summary of the existing literature, they argue that there are two significant domains in the process of teaching: teachers' thought processes and teachers' actions and their observable effects. Within the category of teachers' thought processes, there are three sub-categories: teachers' theories and beliefs, teachers' planning or pre-active decision making, and teachers' interactive thoughts and decisions. They note that the research on teachers' thought processes has been directed towards these three sub-categories (Clark & Peterson, 1986: 258). Within the sub-category of teachers' theories and beliefs are teachers' theories and beliefs about students (or teachers' attributions) and teachers' implicit theories of teaching and learning (see Fig. 1).

The area of theories and beliefs is the primary interest of this thesis. As Richards points out,

> A primary source of teachers' classroom practices is belief systems – the information, attitudes, values, expectations, theories, and assumptions about teaching and learning that teachers build up over time and bring with them to the classroom. (Richards, 1998: 66)

Woods (1996: 190) notes that teachers' background knowledge and beliefs have not been researched in depth in the field of ELT. Nonetheless, in order to access this category of teachers' thought processes, some research (Woods, 1991, 1996; Gatbonton, 1999) has used pre-active and interactive decision making to shed light on these belief systems, and this type of research has become known as teacher cognition, which seeks to examine the thought processes (or the underlying theories and beliefs) that teachers rely upon and use in planning and carrying out their lessons (Freeman, 2001). This section will examine the nature of teachers' beliefs, why they are important, and how they can be accessed.

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         │    processes    │          │ their observable effects│
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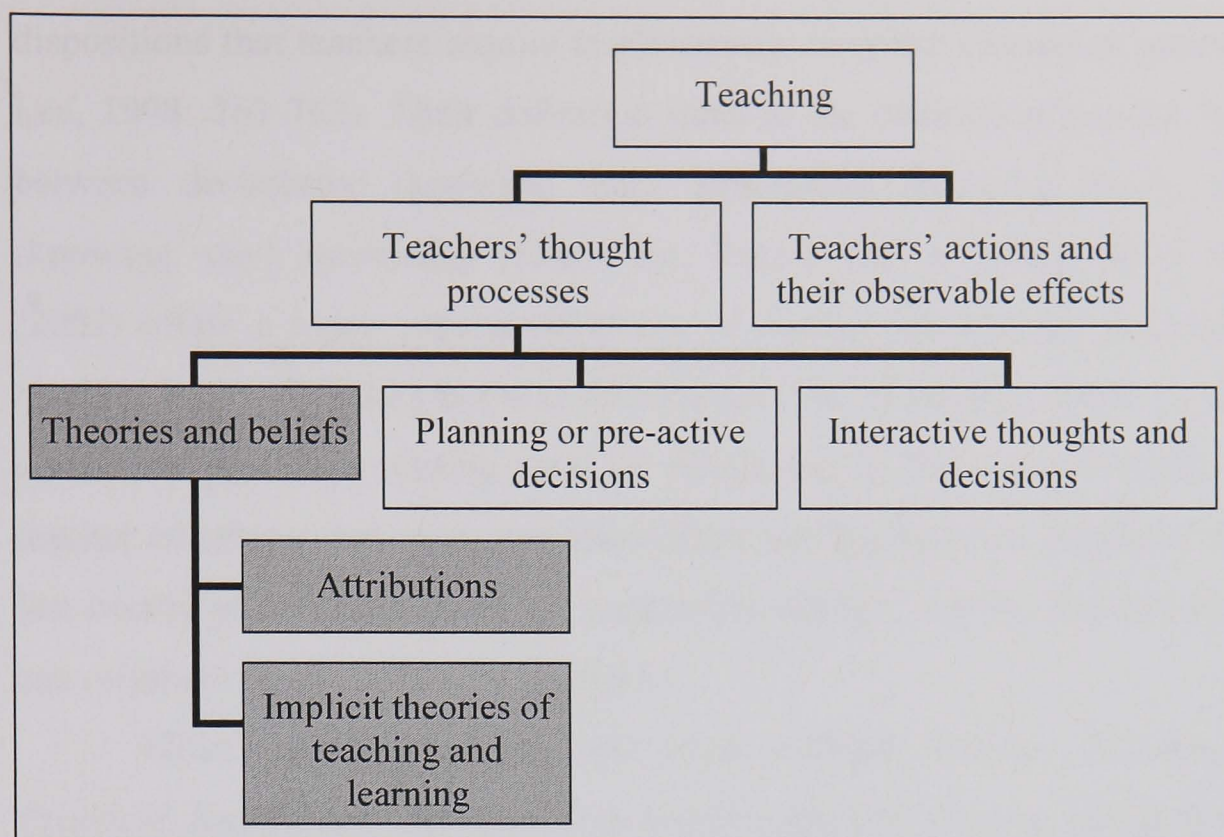
Figure 1: A model of teaching (based on Clark & Peterson, 1986)

2.4.1 Defining teachers' beliefs

A major problem one encounters when discussing teachers' beliefs and even teachers' thoughts is the abundance of terms used in the literature to refer to these concepts and the lack of common ground in the field as to how they are defined (see Pajares, 1992). Some authors have argued that teacher beliefs serve as the foundation for teacher background knowledge (Shulman, 1987), underpinning the particularities of practical, everday classroom wisdom. In other words, beliefs are distinct from knowledge. Teachers begin with ideas (beliefs) unsupported by convention, which may be then grounded in convention by demonstration in the classroom or agreement on the part of other teachers (knowledge) (Woods, 1996). Pajares (1992) illuminates this notion by commenting that this is a conception of knowledge as 'somehow purer than belief and closer to the truth or falsity of a thing…' (Pajares, 1992: 310). Going back to Figure 1, this would mean the addition of another sub-category under *Teachers' Thought Processes*, perhaps called *Background Knowledge,* and would require some representation of the transformation of some beliefs to knowledge. Supporting this addition, Carter and Doyle argue that 'teachers' thinking is knowledge driven' (Carter & Doyle, 1987: 147). However, as we shall see, these ideas are not so simple.

Let's first examine the notion of 'teacher knowledge'. Fradd and Lee (1998) define a teacher's knowledge base as 'the repertoire of knowledge, skills, and

dispositions that teachers require to effectively carry out classroom practices' (Fradd & Lee, 1998: 761-762). Their definition hints at the distinction popular in the literature between declarative (knowing that), procedural (knowing how), and schematic (knowing why) knowledge (Shavelson, Ruiz-Primo & Wiley, 2005: 414). Freeman (2002) offers a more general definition of teacher knowledge, describing it as 'how teachers know what they know to do what they do' (Freeman, 2002: 1). Certainly, these definitions provide a starting point for discussion on the topic of teacher knowledge or teacher cognition, but more specific definitions highlight an important addition in the last twenty years to the notion of teacher knowledge, namely, that teachers' knowledge can originate from teachers' experience.

Elbaz' groundbreaking 1983 book entitled *Teacher Thinking: A Study of Practical Knowledge* identifies five content areas of teacher background knowledge: self, milieu, subject matter, curriculum development, and institutional knowledge, and argues that rather than placing a low value on their experiential knowledge, teachers should be encouraged to view themselves as 'originators of knowledge' (Elbaz, 1983: 11). Previous focus on transmission approaches to teacher education had ignored the possibility that knowledge could come from a source internal to the trainee (such as beliefs), but Elbaz's ideas were not unfounded. Britzman argues,

> Throughout student teaching, it becomes the work of prospective teachers to put into practice the knowledge obtained from college courses. At the same time, they are expected to transform this received classroom knowledge, shifting from a student's perspective to that of a teacher. However, this transformation – of both knowledge and identity, and hence involving the transposition of knowledge and experience – is highly problematic. For it is not just the university that fashions the student teacher's pedagogy; the student teacher's life history, both in and out of classrooms, offers definitions of what it means to learn and to teach. (Britzman, 2003: 47)

Other writers have also sought to identify the categories or dimensions of teachers' knowledge, seeking to include belief and experience. Johnson argues for an expansion of Elbaz' model of teacher knowledge to include:

> personal past history, personal understanding of human affairs, and all of the cultural understanding any teacher brings into the classroom situation, the teacher's aesthetic (his or her mode of perceiving and interacting with the environment and other people), and a person's understanding as their mode of being in, or having, a world. (Johnson, 1989: 362)

He adds that a teacher's personal practical knowledge would include his/her entire worldview (Johnson, 1989: 363), although this perhaps may be an exaggeration, given that a teacher certainly does not incorporate every aspect of his/her worldview into

teaching. Perhaps more helpful is Shulman's (1987: 8) model of the knowledge base, which includes seven categories:

1. content knowledge
2. general pedagogical knowledge
3. curriculum knowledge
4. pedagogical content knowledge
5. knowledge of learners and their characteristics
6. knowledge of educational contexts
7. knowledge of educational ends, purposes, and values

Shulman further articulates this model by arguing that each knowledge area originates in one of four sources: scholarship in content disciplines, educational materials and structures, formal educational scholarship, and wisdom of practice. In contrast, Richards (1998) argues for only two dimensions of teacher knowledge: subject matter knowledge and implicit knowledge, which he defines as 'their personal and subjective philosophy and their understanding of what constitutes good teaching' (Richards, 1998: 51). Certainly, Richards' model, being the most simplistic, has the possibility of encompassing all other models and is perhaps most helpful in this discussion.

On the other hand, when talking about 'teachers' beliefs' as a separate and distinct category, a wider variety of terms is used in the literature, to the confusion of all. Some writers use the term 'beliefs' (Grossman, 1995; Hedgcock, 2002).

> [Beliefs are] a set of conceptual representations which signify to its holder a reality or given state of affairs of sufficient validity, truth, or trustworthiness to warrant reliance upon it as a guide to personal thought and action. (Harvey, 1986, cited by Bullough & Stokes, 1994: 660)

Grossman (1995) notes, 'Prior beliefs are said to represent interpretive lenses through which candidates attempt to focus, see, visualize, perceive, characterize, understand, and ultimately resolve their teaching concerns' (Grossman, 1995: 639-640). Hodkinson and Harvard (1994a) refer to the values, beliefs, and experiences teachers bring to the classroom as 'schema'. Williams (1994: 218, 219) uses the term 'processing' to refer to the interaction between old and new ideas about teaching or the way teachers' beliefs are constructed. Richards uses the term 'maxims', noting,

> [maxims are] personal working principles that reflect individual philosophies of teaching and are developed from experience of teaching and learning, from teacher education experiences, and from teachers' own personal beliefs and value systems. (Richards, 1998: 60)

All of these terms, perhaps developed in an attempt to further specify what we mean by teachers' theories and beliefs, seem only to have further complicated matters.

In order to clarify this discussion surrounding teachers' knowledge and beliefs. in his book *Teacher Cognition in Language Learning,* Devon Woods (1996) discusses how these terms can be unified. He observes that distinguishing between teachers' beliefs (or maxims, schemata, etc.) and teachers' background knowledge is often difficult. He gives the example of a teacher who knows or perhaps believes that students dislike group work. Hearing their groans after she suggests group work, she may infer that their attitude is caused by their dislike of group work. However, their groans may have been caused by the effects of a wild party the previous evening. Thus, her knowledge and/or belief about the situation are rendered indistinguishable due to the fact that she may either know a fact about the situation or merely believe it. Woods further clarifies this dilemma when he says

> In many cases, it cannot be clearly determined whether the interpretations of the events are based on what the teacher knows, what the teacher believes, or what the teacher believes s/he knows...What is relevant...is not a judgment of whether the presuppositions underlying BAK [beliefs, assumptions, knowledge] can be called beliefs or knowledge, but rather how they are used in the decision-making processes of the teachers. (Woods, 1996: 194, 199)

Woods' choice of an inclusive term rather than an exclusive one highlights the interwoven nature of teachers' knowledge and beliefs and provides a functional term for their discussion.

Pajares' (1992) journal article 'Teachers' beliefs and educational research: Cleaning up a messy construct' also illuminates what Nespor (1987) calls an 'entangled domain', noting that, in reality, even 'declarative knowledge requires belief in the authority or its source' (Pajares, 1992: 312). So then, a teacher trainee may only internalize an explanation of English syntax if s/he believes that the source is trustworthy. Further, his/her acceptance of a piece of knowledge about teaching, such as the PPP lesson planning paradigm, will only take place, again, where s/he has faith in (believes in) the source of such content. It could be argued, then, as Lewis (1990) does, that all knowledge is rooted in belief and that these two constructs are tantamount.

Lending further support to both Woods' and Pajares' arguments is the great difficulty a researcher faces in uncovering individuals' beliefs and how they are distinct from knowledge. People are often, as Pajares notes, 'unable or unwilling, for many reasons, to accurately represent their beliefs' (Pajares, 1992: 314). Consequently, these beliefs must be inferred from conversations and actions. Pajares goes on to cite the ways in which individuals often give evidence of their beliefs, including belief statements,

statements of intention, and behaviors related to a particular belief, suggesting that these form the basis for data collection in research methodology (Pajares, 1992: 315).

Following this discussion, with particular attention paid to Woods' and Pajares' helpful analysis of the issue, I will here use the term 'belief' to refer to the entirety of teachers' ideas, whether grounded in experience or simply posited, about what constitutes good (and bad) teaching. The term 'knowledge' will be used to refer to awareness of specific teaching techniques and skills, which a teacher may choose to ignore or use, depending on his/her belief system. In this way, I hope to largely avoid the entanglement between these two constructs by assuming that a teacher can have 'knowledge' of a certain technique but not possess the 'belief' that such technique should be used. This will prove particularly helpful in the context of teacher education, where course providers may encourage the use of such techniques or procedural skill, and will perhaps lend insight into why a course participant might reject such knowledge and on what grounds.

Although sub-section 2.4.3 will examine in greater detail the issue of accessing teachers' beliefs, this thesis will follow Pajares' lead, using the research participants' statements of belief, intention, and knowledge as well as their behavior as evidence of their underlying beliefs. Although, as Nespor (1987) argues, belief systems are not always internally consistent, comparison between statements and behavior will, nevertheless, shed some light on the interplay between teacher trainees' beliefs as well as the impact that short-term teacher training courses have on such systems.

2.4.2 The importance of teachers' beliefs

It may seem obvious from the previous discussion that investigation of teachers' beliefs is crucial since it is at the forefront of teacher research presently, rendered important by the new understanding of the interplay between beliefs and practice. Nevertheless, this section will examine the importance of beliefs in great detail since prevalence in the literature should not serve as one's only justification for research on a certain topic.

Teachers' beliefs are important to the field of language teacher education for many reasons, the most obvious of which is that examining them helps language teaching education researchers and educators to understand better the complex nature of the classroom. 'If a teacher's practice is seen solely as behavior and activity, it is possible to miss the complex basis of understanding on which the activity is based'

(Freeman, 1993: 496). Further, the investigation of teacher beliefs helps to bridge the connection between teachers' thoughts about teaching and their classroom behavior (Gatbonton, 1999: 46).

However, perhaps foremost among reasons for considering teachers' beliefs is the seeming inflexibility of such beliefs in the face of teacher education and development. In 1996, Gutierrez Almarza conducted a study that looked at how four foreign language student teachers' pre-training knowledge interacted with their teacher education knowledge. She found that pre-training knowledge based on learning experiences is complex and different from the prescriptive model of knowledge presented to them during teacher education. Further, she saw that the teacher education courses in her study did not seem to change these pre-training beliefs very much. Grossman (1995: 23) echoes these findings, noting that although teachers often change their classroom behavior in the short-term as a result of teacher education, there is little evidence that they maintain these changes over time, most often returning to classroom behavior consistent with their original beliefs. As he later argues, 'Beliefs are well established, highly stable, and resistant to change' (Grossman, 1995: 639). Eraut (1994: 71) agrees, arguing that teachers teach as they were taught, having been strongly influenced by their earlier experiences as pupils. Other writers concur that, in general, teacher beliefs take precedence over teacher education (Hirst, 1979; Eraut, 1994; Richards, 1998; Kumaravadivelu, 2001; Hedgcock, 2002). Citing studies such as Weinstein (1990) and Calderhead and Robson (1991), Kagan writes that

> The personal beliefs and images that pre-service candidates bring to programs of teacher education usually remain inflexible. Candidates tend to use the information provided in coursework to confirm rather than to confront and correct their pre-existing beliefs. Thus, a candidate's personal beliefs and images determine how much knowledge the candidate acquires from a pre-service program and how it is interpreted. (Kagan, 1992: 154)

As noted earlier, teachers have engaged in Lortie's (1975) 'apprenticeship of observation', watching other teachers for thousands of hours and internalizing their techniques and classroom methodology, thus developing belief systems based on these personal experiences (Grossman, 1995: 639). Consequently, the inflexibility of their views on and beliefs about teaching are not surprising. Grenfell (1998: 11) argues that pre-service teachers have their own personal histories that, of course, do not stop at the door of teacher education. Certainly, this renders teacher beliefs very important for consideration in the development of teacher education programs. Research into pre-

service teachers' beliefs, in particular, can provide teacher educators with insight into how best to develop their curricula and program objectives and direction (Pajares, 1992).

> Teacher educators clearly must pay attention to such beliefs and attitudes. By critically examining their educational and sociocultural histories, it is argued, apprentice L2 teachers come to appreciate the complexity of the LT enterprise and overcome the inhibitory effects of belief systems that resist change. (Hedgcock, 2002: 302)

Another reason why beliefs are crucial to teacher education is that teachers often do not see themselves as sources of knowledge and so are unaware that their past experience is influencing their choices in the classroom. Elbaz notes,

> the view of knowledge as 'empirical and analytic' which prevails in educational thought tends to place a relatively low value on experiential knowledge, and thus teachers themselves may be unaware of the value of their own knowledge. Certainly, there is little encouragement for teachers to view themselves as originators of knowledge. (Elbaz, 1983: 11)

Thus, although teachers are heavily influenced by their past experience as learners, they have often not been given the opportunity to articulate their experience or beliefs about teaching.

Cabaroglu and Roberts (2000: 387) argue, however, that teachers' observed inflexibility might be a result of faulty pre-service teacher education programs rather than any inherent property of personal belief systems. They seem to be suggesting that given the opportunity to reflect on and evaluate their experience and beliefs, teachers would be more likely to modify their preconceived notions. Freeman describes this process of 'making the tacit explicit' by arguing for a dialectical process 'in which familiar and tacit knowledge interacts with – and is reshaped by – newly explicit understandings' (Freeman, 1991: 453). This point will become particularly important in future chapters, which will examine how short-term teacher training can fail to provide such opportunities for teachers (see Chapter 9.3). Arguably, the Reflective Practitioner model offers a way for teachers to examine critically their beliefs about teaching and learning, perhaps becoming more open to change. However, unless teacher educators adopt some form of this model, teachers' beliefs remain intact, unarticulated and unchallenged, as will be discussed further in later chapters.

However, the question arises: Should teachers' beliefs be changed at all? Perhaps they should simply be articulated as an awareness raising activity with no judgment made on their 'correctness'. More specifically, is there a knowledge base or

fixed body of understandings that applies to language teaching in general against which teachers' beliefs should be measured? Certainly, most writers in the literature agree that teachers need knowledge and beliefs about teaching. However, there seems to be no consensus on what constitutes 'good' or 'correct' knowledge or beliefs. Hollingsworth (1989), for example, claims that teachers must acquire knowledge about subject matter, general management and instruction pedagogy, and knowledge of the classroom ecology in order to be effective teachers. However, her study shows that student teachers in general disagree on what constitutes proper depth of that knowledge. Brousseau and Freeman (1988) examined the way teacher education faculty define 'desirable beliefs' and found that there was no common set all members of the faculty could agree upon. They noted that 'teacher education faculty members are more likely to reinforce prevailing beliefs than to challenge inappropriate beliefs...' (Brousseau & Freeman, 1988: 272-273). This may be due to the fear of facing criticism by those who disagree with the standards set by a particular body of teacher educators. The issue of whether or not some beliefs are 'better' than others (and if so, which ones?) is certainly one which needs further research and discussion, particularly if the Reflective Practitioner model is to be firmly rooted in pedagogy. That said, a complete discussion of 'desirable beliefs' is not within the scope of this research and so will not be resolved here.

2.4.3 Accessing teachers' beliefs

Although Freeman and Richards (1996: 77) argue that beliefs are internal and that there is no definitive way of labelling them, previous sections explored possible definitions for *beliefs*, perhaps most helpful among which is Woods' (1996) term *BAK*, which encompasses not only ideas about teaching and learning supported by convention or demonstration but also those ideas rooted in 'feelings about what are "right" ways of teaching' (Woods, 1996: 192). However, because teachers' beliefs represent the invisible side of teaching, accessing them can be complicated and problematic. Again, as previously discussed, Pajares (1992) provides concrete advice for the types of evidence that can be used to shed light on teachers' beliefs, namely, teachers' behavior and statements of intention and belief.

However, other writers have adopted additional frameworks for accessing beliefs which must be considered. Kinginger (1997), for example, identifies two tools

for understanding and accessing teachers' beliefs: coherence systems and reflective practice. A coherence system refers to 'a method of portraying that knowledge in order to make it accessible for comparative or other analysis' (Kinginger, 1997: 8). The framework of teacher cognition, which looks to teachers' planning and decision-making to access their beliefs, is an example of a coherence system (Freeman, 1996a; Gutierrez Almarza, 1996; Freeman, 2001). Freeman (1996b) notes that decision-making provides an accessible structure by which researchers can connect teachers per se and teacher education. Put simply, 'Our knowing is in our action' (Schön, 1983: 49). In a similar vein, Jackson's (1968) study focused on descriptions of what teachers thought about as they planned for instruction, and further studies have also used decision-making as a means to examine teachers' underlying beliefs (Clark & Yinger, 1979; Shavelson & Stern, 1981; Nunan, 1992; Gatbonton, 1999). Studies employing the framework of teacher cognition often use methods like stimulated recall where teachers are asked questions about their decisions while watching pre-recorded video or audio of their classroom time (Gatbonton, 1999).

Teacher cognition does have its problems, however. Freeman (1996b) points out that not all thinking takes the form of decisions. For example, a teacher may have strong beliefs regarding what constitutes cheating, but these beliefs may never be realized in the classroom if the situation of cheating doesn't arise. Freeman identifies an additional problem with teacher cognition in that decisions are rooted in specific and complex contexts, which the defined process of decision-making cannot always account for easily. Teacher cognition, while providing some insight into teachers' beliefs, thus cannot provide all the answers. Further, this framework has practical issues as well. In the context of short teacher education courses, timetabling specific times with each course participant after each occasion of teaching practice and asking them to engage in stimulated recall is time-consuming and fairly unrealistic, causing a researcher in this context to look elsewhere for means of accessing participants' beliefs.

Another example of a coherence system is the Belief Inventory Questionnaire, which often includes a list of statements about teaching and learning that teachers are asked to rate in terms of their agreement or disagreement (; Richards, Tung & Ng, 1992; Kyriacou & Cheng, 1993; Bramald et al., 1995; Richards & Pennington, 1998). This tool is most often used in combination with other methodologies but is helpful for selection of candidates for further research and easy coding of responses.

Kinginger's (1997) second, quite popular means of accessing teachers' beliefs is using reflective practice (see Chapter 2.2.2), the process of reflecting on past learning experiences, often in storied format. Researchers frequently utilize this process in the form of interviews, autobiographies, and journals, often in a storied format. This tool often provides an understanding of the origin of teachers' beliefs. Elbaz argues that 'teachers' knowledge in its own terms is ordered by story and can best be understood in this way' (Elbax, 1991: 3; see also Pajares, 1992). In other words, teachers' experiences are organized chronologically. Following this idea, Bailey et al. (1996) used autobiography to examine the beliefs of seven M.A. teachers-in-training. Using three guiding questions, the researchers were able to learn about the teachers' criteria for judging success in learning, for determining effective and ineffective teaching, and for examining how past experience was affecting present teaching practice. Similarly, Grossman's (1995) study used journals on two topics, the challenge of teaching and the role of the teacher, to examine teachers' beliefs. Cortazzi (1991) examined 1,000 narratives about teaching from elementary education teachers to gather information on their beliefs, perceptions, and values. Further studies have used interviews to allow teachers to articulate their beliefs often by means of recalling past experiences. However, some writers have criticized reflective practice for its limitations. Certainly, there is the option of simply asking an individual what s/he believes, but not all beliefs are articulated well, and some individuals may articulate certain beliefs based on what they think the researcher wants to hear. Richards (1998) notes that many teachers do not 'practice what they preach'. They may specify that they prefer a certain philosophy (such as the communicative approach) but may not actually implement that in their classroom.

This issue, again, stresses the importance of clearly defining what one means by *belief*. Must belief be translated to action? Woods argues convincingly that 'A belief articulated in the context of a "story" about concrete events, behaviors, and plans, is more likely to be grounded in actual behavior' (Woods, 1996: 27). However, he is referring not to decision-making but rather to the idea that when one asks teachers abstract questions regarding their beliefs (i.e. Do you believe in the communicative approach?), there is a greater tendency for the teacher to respond in the way s/he believes is expected (i.e. Of course I believe in the communicative approach!). As Ducharme notes,

when people tell their own stories there is never total reliability. Individuals may often select what they want to say, forget things or choose to omit them for whatever reason, exaggerate what happened, and so forth. (Ducharme, 1993: 15)

Woods argues that using a storied approach where teachers are asked concrete rather than abstract questions about past experiences grounds reflective practice in real belief.

A final, perhaps more recent method of accessing teachers' beliefs is paying attention to the metaphors teachers use when expressing their ideas. McGrath (2006) notes that researchers such as Tobin and Ulerick (1989), Tobin (1990), and Marchant (1992) have successfully drawn comparisons between teachers' metaphors and their classroom practice, and McGrath used this method in his own research on ELT teachers' views of textbooks. In order to elicit metaphors, respondents are often asked to complete open-ended statements, such as 'A teacher is like....' (McGrath, 2006). Other methods include analyzing for metaphorica language data in the form of recorded, natural conversations or interviews. This form of accessing teachers' beliefs has proven successful in a number of studies, although it was not employed here for practical reasons (see Chapter 6).

Operating from my previous definition, I have chosen to use the term 'belief' to refer to the entirety of teachers' ideas, whether truly known or just posited, about what constitutes good teaching. Consequently, stemming both from this discussion as well as Pajares' (1992) helpful suggestions regarding the evidence researchers might rely upon when accessing teachers' beliefs, this study focuses on a combination of those beliefs which are actualized in classroom behavior and those which are verbalized/written by the course participant both in direct statements (i.e. 'I believe..') and in statements of intention. These different sources of data were triangulated (see Chapter 10) to reveal as accurate a representation as possible of pre-service teachers' beliefs in this context.

Chapter 3: Short-term Language Teacher Education

Short-term language teacher education began with John Haycraft's two-week program for native-speaker teachers of English at the International House School in London in 1962 (Haycraft, 1998). Haycraft's course provided pre-service teachers with 'pithy teaching formulas' like how to tackle common problems with grammar and 'platitudes of clear teaching techniques' like legible blackboard work, classroom management, and keeping student attention (Haycraft, 1998: 194). His concept has since spread across the globe, becoming a popular entry route into the field of ELT (see Ferguson & Donno, 2003). After providing details of the different and often confusing acronyms associated with teaching English, this chapter will look at short-term language teacher education in the UK, provide details from the literature regarding support for and criticism of short-term training, and finally, examine the nature of the evaluating bodies of this type of teacher education.

3.1: Language Teacher Programs in the UK

3.1.1 TEFL, TESOL, TESL, and ELT

Although the terms TEFL (Teaching English as a Foreign Language), TESOL (Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages), TESL (Teaching English as a Second Language), and ELT (English Language Teaching) are often used to refer to the same thing, these terms are generally used in different ways in the United Kingdom. The British Council (2004) identifies TEFL and TESOL as teaching individuals whose first language is not English and whose objectives range from English for leisure to English for academic purposes. TEFL and TESOL often take place in commercial language schools, TEFL in countries with a national language other than English. TESL, on the other hand, is most often used to describe teaching English individuals who have immigrated to the United Kingdom and need English primarily for survival purposes. Most often, TESL takes place in state colleges. The British Council points out that, confusingly, TESOL is often used to refer to TESL, and that ELT is most often used to refer to all forms of English language teaching, whether it be TESOL, TESL, or

TEFL. The following sections will examine TEFL/TESOL teacher education programs as these are most relevant to the proposed research, although the term ELT will be used to refer to both, following the trend in the literature.

3.1.2 Routes to qualifications

Presently in the UK, there is a variety of routes to becoming an ELT teacher, the most common of which are currently the Cambridge/RSA Certificate in English Language Teaching to Adults (CELTA) and the Trinity College London (Trinity or TCL) TESOL Certificate (CertTESOL), which have historically operated mainly to train teachers for overseas, private sector teaching (EFL or TEFL). Previously, in order to become an ESOL teacher in state or local authority schools, individuals had to complete the one-year Postgraduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) with a focus in ELT which led to Qualified Teacher Status (QTS). However, this program was discontinued in the early 1990s (Ferguson & Donno, 2003), and the CELTA and Trinity courses now train teachers for both the overseas private and UK public and private sectors, although teachers must also have QTS in order to teach ELT children in state schools and, in order to teach in further education, a Level 5 Certificate for ESOL Subject Specialists. Currently, both UCLES and Trinity College London offer this FE qualification as an add-on to their TESOL Certificate courses (see TCL, 2007; UCLES, 2007b).

Arguably, the absence of state-imposed standards makes ELT teacher education in the UK a market-driven field. Williams notes that 'In the private sector ELT can be a lucrative business, and the demand for training courses is high' (Williams, 1994: 215). Since most individuals seeking ELT education must pay for these courses themselves, the cost remains low to attract new trainees, and the course remains short. Some have argued that the ease of entering this profession has led to a lack of professionalism in the field (Ferguson & Donno, 2003). However, although heavily criticized by many, short-term training courses such as CELTA and CertTESOL continue to dominate the field of ELT education in the UK. This section will examine the nature of these two courses as well as the debate surrounding their effectiveness.

3.1.2.1 CELTA

CELTA is perhaps the oldest and most well-known language teacher education program in the UK and around the world, largely modelled around John Haycraft's practical.

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short teacher training course at the International House School in London (Lowe, 2003). Although initially intended as a staff induction program, Haycraft began offering the course to others as a 'general way of entering EFL as a profession' (Haycraft, 1988: 9). Largely due to financial difficulties, in 1978, this teacher training program was overseen by the Royal Society of Arts (RSA), an independent charity based in London, and became widely known as the 'RSA Preparatory Certificate', retaining its practical, skills-based focus (Haycraft, 1988).

In the following ten years, ELT teacher education was divided into four qualifications, separated according to L1 and experience (Borg, 2002: 9).

native English speakers	a) a preservice certificate	(CTEFLA)
	b) a post-experience diploma	(DTEFLA)
non-native English speakers	c) an early in-service certificate	(COTE)
	d) a post-experience inservice diploma	(DOTE)

The University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate (UCLES) took over responsibility for the administration of all four ELT teaching qualifications in 1988, giving the RSA Cert the new name of The Certificate in Teaching English as a Foreign Language to Adults (CTEFLA). In 1996, the Certificate was re-designated as the Certificate in English Language Teaching to Adults (CELTA) following revisions to the syllabus and assessment criteria (The British Council, 2004). COTE (Certificate for Overseas Teachers of English) has since become ICELT, and DOTE has since become integrated with the current DELTA program, introduced in 1997 to replace the DTEFLA.

Program description

Although UCLES itself does not offer CELTA courses, it accredits CELTA providers and validates CELTA courses around the world. Currently, CELTA is available at over 286 centers in 54 countries, providing almost 900 CELTA courses each year and possessing an annual candidature of over 10,000 (Green, 2005). It advertises itself as being primarily for individuals who are interested in starting a career in TESOL/TEFL but who have had no prior experience with teaching English. (UCLES, 2007a).

Broad characteristics of the course

Because CELTA is a short-term program, its focus is on the practical rather than the theoretical side of English language teaching in keeping with Haycraft's original design.

Students spend the majority of their time honing skills such as classroom management, lesson planning, choosing materials, and specific teaching methods. Although some CELTA providers claim to include language learning theory in the coursework (see Oxford Brookes University, 2004), UCLES itself does not make any such claims in its own publications about the program. In order to gain entrance into the course, applicants must be at least eighteen years of age, have a standard of education equivalent to that required for entrance into higher education, and have a high level of competence in English, both written and spoken (UCLES, 2007a).

Program objectives

UCLES identifies several key objectives of their program. By participating in CELTA, participants will:

1. learn the principles of effective teaching
2. acquire a broad range of practical skills for teaching English to adult learners
3. experience hands-on teaching practice
4. build confidence (UCLES, 2006)

Ideally, new teachers will have several years' teaching experience, preferably abroad, after their initial training, and then take the more advanced TEFL/TESOL diploma course, DELTA, in order to continue their professional development (Haycraft, 1998: 313). Unfortunately, as some critics have noted, teachers often rely heavily on the initial Certificate without completing additional coursework and often move on to another career after a few years' experience (Roberts, 1998; Ferguson & Donno, 2003).

Structure

The CELTA program can be taken full-time, taking approximately four to five weeks, or part-time over a period of a few months to over a year. Participants engage in a minimum of 120 hours of contact with the course tutors, including lectures, tutorials, supervised lesson planning, six hours of supervised teaching practice, feedback, peer observation, and eight hours of directed observation of lessons taught by experienced English language teachers (UCLES, 2007a).

There are six main components of the program integrated throughout the participants' contact with the tutors:

1. learners and teachers and the teaching/learning context
2. language analysis and awareness
3. language skills: reading, listening, speaking and writing
4. planning and resources for different teaching contexts

5. developing teaching skills and professionalism (UCLES, 2007a: 1)

Assessment

In the CELTA program, there are no final exams. Participants are assessed as the program progresses by an external moderator appointed by UCLES. The main components of assessment are twofold. First, participants are required to complete a minimum of six hours of practice teaching in classrooms with two different proficiency levels. After the six hours are completed, their performance is assessed. Second, each teacher is required to complete writing assignments on adult learning, the language system of English, language skills, and classroom teaching. In order to receive the CELTA Certificate, individuals must receive a grade of Pass, Pass A, or Pass B in both components.

3.1.2.2 The Trinity College London TESOL Certificate

Over 100 organizations, including universities, around the world offer Trinity CertTESOL courses. Like UCLES, Trinity advertises its CertTESOL as an initial training program for those with little or no experience teaching English. Its entry requirements are also similar to UCLES CELTA's in that it requires a minimum age of eighteen on entry to the course, qualifications for entry to higher education in the UK, and competence in written and spoken English (TCL, 2006a). Similarly to CELTA, the CertTESOL focuses on practical skills, emphasizing 'the basic skills and knowledge needed to take up a first post as a TESOL teacher...' (TCL: 2006a: 6). However, Trinity's validation requirements for prospective course providers do seem to allow for more variation in course content between CertTESOL providers, allowing different providers to take into account the needs of candidates on a particular course. For example, CertTESOL providers are allowed discretion on the types of assessment used (TCL, 2006b: 34).

Program objectives

Trinity College specifies the following sample learning objectives that their licensed programs' trainees must demonstrate by completion of the course:

1. knowledge of the main phonological, lexical and syntactic features of contemporary English
2. awareness of the learning needs of individuals or groups of learners, and of the motivation of learners in a variety of cultures and environments
3. ability to establish rapport, create and maintain learners' interest

4. ability to draw up a range of lesson plans with clear and achievable aims, using appropriate methods for learners with various needs
5. ability to manage and stimulate active participation among a class of learners and provide a relevant learning context and learning opportunities in relation to their learning objectives
6. ability to evaluate, use and adapt published material and create simple teaching material, which may include visual aids, audio, video and information/communications technology
7. broad understanding of the main advantages and disadvantages of various language teaching approaches
8. ability to evaluate their own effectiveness as teachers and to work cooperatively as members of a teaching team or group
9. awareness of the need to continue their professional development as ESOL teachers after training in a teaching post and through private study, further training or participation in professional networking events
10. awareness of the means of identifying a TESOL post after training, including using the media and professional associations, and of the main issues relating to employment in this area that may affect their future security and further professional development. (TCL, 2006a: 7)

Again, similar to the CELTA course, the CertTESOL stresses that the program is merely a stepping stone to further training, although, again, most often, teachers rely on this initial Certificate to carry them through their career (see Roberts, 1998; Green, 2005).

Structure

Prior to entering the course, participants complete pre-course reading on such subjects as grammar, phonology, and methodology. This pre-course reading is then discussed during the course (TCL, 2006a). Participants receive 90 hours of input during the course, including lectures, workshops, and guided private and group work. In addition, unlike the CELTA course, CertTESOL participants receive four hours of 'Unknown Natural Language' lessons, intended to expose pre-service teachers to the language learning experience. They also observe experienced teachers for a minimum of four hours and engage in at least six hours of supervised teaching practice, similar to the CELTA program (O'Donoghue, 2001).

Trinity's CertTESOL course is structured around five units which incorporate all the required learning objectives. These units include:

1. teaching skills (including methodology, teaching practice, guided observation, materials evaluation, etc.)
2. language awareness (grammar and phonology)
3. the learner profile (a simple linguistic profile and needs analysis for one learner of English)
4. the materials assignment (planning, producing, using, and evaluating classroom materials)

5. unknown language (TCL, 2006b: 18)

Assessment

CertTESOL courses are moderated by a Trinity appointed moderator, and each participant is interviewed by the moderator both individually to discuss his/her materials assignment and also in a group. During the group interview, the moderator asks questions regarding the group's general impressions of the course. In addition, one assignment per candidate is assessed by the moderator and evaluated for completeness. CertTESOL courses are not graded like CELTA ones (pass, pass 'B,' etc.), although individual providers may choose to devise their own means of differentiating stronger candidates from weaker candidates. However, the minimum requirement, as stipulated by Trinity, is that all candidates attend all training sessions and complete all assignments, projects, and tests to the standard set by the course provider (TCL, 2006b). During his/her visit, the moderator discusses each participant's work with the course provider and then recommends the successful candidates to the head of the Trinity CertTESOL program, who awards the Certificates.

3.2: Current Support and Criticism of Short-term Teacher Education

Short-term ELT teacher education has aroused both fierce loyalty and skepticism. Those loyal to it (see Horne, 2003; Lowe, 2003; Macpherson, 2003) see the short-term training program as an appropriate answer to the seeming distance between academia and the classroom. Further, they argue that the length of the program bears no relevance to the issue of its effectiveness and that its stringent requirements and rigorous syllabus speak to its validity as a training program. However, beyond just the matter of length, arguments have surfaced regarding the nature of the program's content, including the seeming downplay of explicit knowledge about language, the favored P-P-P (Presentation-Practice-Production) method of presentation, and the higher status of the native speaker vs. the non-native speaker. Additionally, the very idea of a one-month training course has been called into question by many, who argue that its length compromises the professional image that the language teaching field deserves. This section will first discuss briefly some of the published support for and defense of short-term training followed by a discussion of the salient concerns surrounding it.

3.2.1 Support for short-term training

Charles Lowe (2003) somewhat cynically discusses what he sees as a dichotomy between the theory-dominated language teacher education programs in the U.S. and the more practical programs in the UK, particularly John Haycraft's development of the short-term training program. Giving a short history of language teacher education, he argues that elitism has dominated the field for some time, giving greater credence to a PhD than to an ELT diploma (Lowe, 2003: 3), and that this academic arrogance, although in decline, still plagues the ELT profession. He argues that in the early 1980s,

> Universities in the USA were theory-driven, their tutors were largely academics with little actual experience of classroom language teaching, and their aims were to research and theorize about language learning issues and provide language teachers with the starting point for their actions in the classroom. (Lowe, 2003: 2)

In opposition to this academic, theory-driven teacher education, his paper celebrates what he calls the 'pioneering brilliance of John Haycraft' and seems to mock the distinction between 'training' and 'education', arguing that the short-term training course in the UK is not the solution-oriented program its critics purport it to be but is rather a problem-posing, question-raising course.

Although Lowe presents some good arguments regarding the need for academics and teachers to work together and respect one another's work, many of his arguments seem emotional and one-sided. However, the main problem with his paper is his overly simplistic view which fails to answer any real criticisms of short-term training. He cautions teachers to 'remain on their guard against any resurgence of academic authority on their work' (Lowe, 2003: 7) as if academics are waiting to pounce on unsuspecting teachers.

Certainly, both CELTA and CertTESOL have changed with the times in some respects. To their credit, most if not all providers assert in their syllabi that the qualification they offer is meant to be merely the first of a series of qualifications. In response to an article questioning the effectiveness of short-term training (Ferguson & Donno, 2003), Macpherson (2003), writing specifically about the Trinity CertTESOL course, argues that because only one third of Trinity's courses are four weeks in length, critics of the course's length are making a hasty generalization. Although she also mentions the course's stringency, her argument seems to be that one should overlook the short length of the course since these courses do not make up the majority of those offered. A strange argument indeed since the criticism is leveled mainly at the four

week programs and not at the other programs offered by Trinity. She does concede in her conclusions, however, that the Trinity CertTESOL is indeed an initial qualification, which needs to be emphasized to the future employers of trainees. Nonetheless, despite arguments for maintaining the length of the program, questions still remain regarding whether or not trainees actually go on to pursue further professional development or training and indeed whether or not their employers require it.

Macpherson (2003) also attempts to address concerns regarding the inclusion of explicit knowledge about language in the Trinity course. She argues that

> In the context of an initial training course, successful trainees demonstrate not only an understanding of the basic relationship between linguistic form and meaning, but also the ability to describe, teach, develop, and assess the principal concepts of the structure and use of English in terms of teaching and learning. (Macpherson, 2003: 298)

The weakness of her arguments lies in her failure to provide any examples, and her article quickly moves on to discuss further arguments without elaborating on this particular point.

Some recent research has been published in support of short-term training. In February, 2005, Tony Green, member of the Research and Validation Group of CELTA, published a survey which tracked the careers of CELTA graduates around the world. Questions Green investigated included: Where do CELTA participants go and what do they do upon completion of the course? What impact does CELTA have on their careers? What insights can this information give us about the CELTA course design? With these issues in mind, Green administered a questionnaire asking for details about, for example, work experience prior to the CELTA course, when and where the course was completed, jobs participants acquired after the course, opinions of the value and relevance of the course content, future career plans, and the impact of CELTA on their career. Having received and analyzed 478 completed questionnaires, Green concluded that 'From the responses, the CELTA appears to be a popular course that can have a life-changing effect on participants' (Green, 2005: 11). However, he also notes that participants expressed desire for teacher education catered specifically to different types of ELT, such as ESL, EFL, and English for Young Learners (EYL). He also points out that respondents appreciate the global recognition of the CELTA and its high market value in the field.

Green's study is clearly important as it seeks to find out what happens to CELTA candidates after the program ends. However, nowhere in the article does Green

address a primary criticism of short-term teacher education: Do participants, in fact, pursue additional professional development or teacher education? His questionnaire asks respondents to outline their future career plans, including what type of post they would like to seek next, and what careers advice respondents would give a potential CELTA candidate. Although some responses included the caveat that CELTA and a B.A. are not enough to acquire a well-paying job, Green fails to pursue this vein. Certainly, more research in this area needs to be done.

3.2.2 Criticism of short-term training

Although it can be argued that courses like CELTA and CertTESOL have made appropriate changes reflective of some of the changes in the ELT field itself[4], writers like Philip Kerr (1994) have pointed out that still inherent in such courses are a preference for native speakers of English over non-native speakers. Despite a change in the structure of the RSA/Cambridge awards (see Chapter 3.1.2.1) to open courses to both native and non-native speakers provided they meet a language proficiency requirement[5], Kerr and others argue that the short course still favors native speakers. His article, devoted to the language awareness or LA component of short-term training, defines LA as 'a process intended to lead to broader linguistic awareness, which may be seen as an aim or end product' (Kerr, 1994: 1). The inclusion of LA in short-term training courses such as CELTA and CertTESOL may seem to suggest recognition of the recent questioning of the value of minimally trained native speakers and the increasing number of non-native speakers into training programs. However, examining specifically the UCLES CELTA Certificate, Kerr surveyed 100 trainees, revealing that 95% thought of the LA component as not at all connected with students or learning-teaching. Analyzing the LA component in over thirty CELTA courses in seventeen centers, he found the following:

1. a decline in the number of hours devoted to LA in the last 13 years
2. more uniformity in LA covered by the 30 courses
3. 70% of LA time devoted to the verb phrase
4. LA and phonology treated as separate and taught in different modules
5. very little time spent on application of grammar insights

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[4] Some course providers have added input sessions on English for Young Learners (EYL), given the global decrease in age of individuals needing English language teaching (see Graddol, 2006).
[5] UCLES (2007c) notes that trainees must have 'a standard of English which will enable you to teach at a range of levels'. This translates to course providers in a multitude of ways. At BridgeTEFL (2007), for example, non-native speakers must have a computer-based TOEFL score of roughly 280. At AU, the requirement for non-native speaker trainees is IELTS level 6.5

6. practical application of LA generally limited to the Presentation-Practice-Production or PPP model of teaching

Kerr argues that essentially, LA can be boiled down simply to 'the analysis of the verb phrase in the context of a P-P-P lesson' (Kerr, 1994: 1), which, in its simplicity, implicitly favors the native speaker. Ferguson and Donno argue the same, that implicit in the short-term course is a partiality towards native-speaker teachers, who 'can be certified to teach with the limited amount of explicit language awareness and pedagogical training a one-month course can provide' (Ferguson & Donno, 2003: 29; see also O'Donoghue & Hales, 2002). Ironically, however, this preferential treatment may prove quite problematic for the future of the short course, in light of the decreasing global value of the native speaker teacher (see Graddol, 2006; further discussion in Chapter 11.4).

Another criticism of short-term training stems from its content. Kerr (1994) is not alone in pointing out a reliance on the PPP model of teaching in short-term training programs. Tessa Woodward (1994) examined the appearance of the PPP model during one CELTA course and found it in pre-course information, teaching points from lectures, course timetables, and trainers' verbal advice. She argues that such a reliance on the '3 P's' arises from a belief that things divided up are easier to study. Some of the assumptions she sees behind this model are:

1. a view of language as an 'out-there' body of knowledge that can be atomised, dissected into discrete, small pieces which can then be isolated, selected, graded and sequenced. Note that even in the description of the syllabus the exact type of language item is left unspecified
2. a view of learning generally as being possible by the assimilation of small chunks that build towards a whole, by the recognition and imitation of a model, and as being visible and checkable in a short time
3. a view of language learning which assumes that if you get the rules and patterns correct you can generate correct sentences
4. a view of teaching as a fairly elaborate set of learnable routines
5. a view of how a lesson is shaped, moving from controlled to guided to free, with perhaps a bit of 'free' at the beginning, too
6. a view of learners as people who express other people's meanings (Woodward, 1994: 1)

Arguably, CELTA course providers oppose a reliance on any one model as indicated in their materials (UCLES, 2007a). However, as is often the case, reliance on an easy set of prescribed techniques seems to have won out. As Kaliski and Kent (2000) point out, PPP gives teachers an element of control, unfortunately most often resulting in students' loss of opportunity to express their own meanings and use language creatively and

communicatively. Recognizing the prominence of this model in the CELTA, Kaliski and Kent decided to implement the Task-Based Learning or TBL methodology into one CELTA course with positive results. It remains to be seen if other providers take the same route.

Finally, inherent in any short-term training course, ELT or otherwise, is the lack of professionalism it portrays. Denemark and Nutter (1984: 205) argue that, in general, teachers' preparation is not comparable to that of most recognized professions, like the medical profession, in terms of length or rigor. Recommending at least five years of field-oriented preparation, these writers suggest that greater preparation will lend greater respect to the teaching field. Shulman (1987) agrees, arguing that teaching will not achieve professional status until the standards by which teachers are trained are raised. Ferguson and Donno (2003) suggest that this includes more focus on the awareness of different teaching contexts, further study into explicit language awareness, longer supervised practice, and more attention to language learning. Certainly, accommodating all of these things into a four week training course would be difficult, if not impossible, lending more support to increasing the length of the course.

As an outsider of the course, criticizing its obvious weaknesses is all too easy. Later chapters will uncover the validity of these criticisms using data collected from the specific context of one short-term training course.

3.3: Evaluating Bodies

Since the inception of the UCLES CELTA program, several organizations have attempted to provide a standard of quality by which ELT and TESOL/TEFL teacher education programs could be judged. John Haycraft (1998) refers to the development of ARELS, founded in 1957, which inspected and recognized as efficient private English language schools in Britain.

The English in Britain Accreditation Scheme (EIBAS) was established in 1996, operating as a partnership between the British Council, ARELS (Association of Recognized English Language Services), and BASELT (British Association of State English Language Teaching). The main purpose for its induction was to 'protect international students who are studying or planning to study English as a Foreign Language (EFL) in the UK' (Mace, 2004: 1). It's important to note that EIBAS was established for the purposes of evaluating ELT training in general and not TESOL or

TEFL training programs specifically, although Mace's article refers to the Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (QCA), who have accredited Trinity College and CELTA Certificates and Diplomas since 2002.

Clare O'Donoghue (2001) discusses the emergence of the BATQI (British Association of TESOL Qualifying Institutions), which was founded by teacher educators in the British university system as an attempt to provide a means by which employers can compare different courses and their outcomes. However, BATQI's attempts to quantify and compare TEFL courses were insufficient, O'Donoghue argues, because of its treatment of initial Certificate courses in the private sector (like UCLES and Trinity) and undergraduate TEFL modules in university as equal. She points out that these two types of programs cater to individuals with differing career aspirations and so should offer (and most often do offer) different types of courses which cannot be viewed as equivalent. However, as O'Donoghue suggests, the intention behind BATQI was sound and responded to a great need in the developing market of language teacher education programs to establish a unifying standard by which employers can measure their potential teachers' qualifications. BATQI was replaced in 2001 by QuiTE, who, although not course-accrediting, has made similar efforts to provide a standard in ELT teacher education, primarily by facilitating ongoing professional discussion (see QuiTE, 2007).

Chapter 4: The Practicum Component

The Practicum component or field experience opportunity of language teacher education is often viewed by student teachers as the most important component of their training (Lortie, 1975; Brown, 1983). Student teachers tend to believe that observing a teacher in action and having an opportunity to practice teaching will solidify all that they've been learning and offer them a chance to practically apply the methods and techniques about which they've read and heard. Richard Day discusses this process of what is usually 'guided, systematic, and focused observation of second language teachers' (Day, 1990: 43), noting that it can assist the student teacher in:

1. developing a terminology for understanding and discussing the teaching process
2. developing an awareness of the principles and decision making that underlie effective teaching
3. distinguishing between effective and ineffective teaching practices
4. identifying techniques and practices student teachers can apply to their own teaching (Day, 1990: 43)

Traditionally, teacher education in general has included some sort of field experience for student teachers, and language teacher education is no exception (Stoynoff, 1999: 146). This section will examine the structure of the Practicum component in short-term ELT teacher education, the types of observation student teachers typically engage in, and current research which examines the Practicum.

4.1: Practicum Structure

Looking at field experience within teacher education in general, Beck and Kosnick (2002) discuss the components of a good Practicum placement, first identifying the different forms that the Practicum often takes. The Practicum can be:

1. integrated with the campus program, within an overarching conception of teacher education
2. in innovative schools partnered with the university
3. structured so as to give student teachers experience of a whole school rather than just an individual classroom or have several field experiences in a diversity of sites
4. done individually or in pairs or clusters (Beck & Kosnick, 2002)

Where universities and training centers have their own Intensive English Program (IEP) or facilities to accommodate ELT students, Practicum student teachers may be placed in

classrooms on the campus, as they were at Atlantic University (see p. 145). Otherwise, they are placed in schools in the local area.

In general teacher education programs, students are often given an entire semester to devote solely to student teaching (Beck & Kosnik, 2002; Coll, Taylor & Grainger, 2002). However, within university settings, such as in the USA, ELT student teachers are usually taking other courses during their ELT Practicum and thus do not get the volume of classroom hours that is given to other student teachers. Indeed, 'The amount of time that a trainee is required to do in his or her Practicum, reflects a certain educational philosophy of the training institute' (Ben-Peretz & Rumney, 1991: 518). Some institutions operate under the belief that the practical skills a Practicum affords should be included within the formal framework of teacher education, thus justifying a longer Practicum (see Stoynoff, 1999). Others may believe that these skills come with experience, and the time spent in the training program should be oriented towards more theoretical or preparatory studies (Ben-Peretz & Rumney, 1991). However, if ELT student teachers get fewer Practicum hours (approximately 15 weeks, three-four hours per week) in a university setting than do other student teachers, the amount of hours spent observing and practice teaching in a language classroom in a short-term ELT training program seem miniscule in comparison.

As previous sub-sections discussed, the Practicum component of short-term language teacher training is, as the name suggests, short. Student teachers engage in four to eight hours of observation of a language classroom accompanied by a minimum of six hours of practice teaching (TCL, 2006a; UCLES, 2007a). In the CELTA course, the teaching practice is timetabled on a continuous basis through the course, and each candidate is given the opportunity to teach at two different levels, at least one of which is in a classroom for below intermediate level learners. UCLES specifies that the six hours of teaching practice should include teaching opportunities at at least two different levels (UCLES, 2007a: 19). The Trinity CertTESOL course also requires that student teachers participate in classrooms of at least two different levels of ability, but the program's validation requirements specify no specific timetabling of the Practicum component, which is left up to the specific provider's discretion (TCL, 2006b).

4.2: Teaching Observation Types

Prior to solo practice teaching, teacher trainees often engage in observation of an experienced teacher in order to provide the terminology necessary for discussing their own teaching and to supply an example of teaching against which their own teaching practice can be compared (Richards, 1998: 19; see also Acheson & Gall, 1987; Good & Brophy, 1987). Understandably, perhaps, the literature does not say a great deal about this component of teacher education, given the comparatively greater importance of the practice teaching itself. That said, some recommendations have been made regarding how observation can be guided and structured.

Richard Day (1990) identifies two main forms of classroom observation: qualitative and quantitative. Using qualitative methods of observation, student teachers seek to describe what goes on the classroom in a broad sense, often in the form of ethnography. They might look for and document information about the teacher, the students, and the interaction between them, as well as the classroom, room temperature, etc. Quantitative research, on the other hand, generally involves a checklist or form to complete, focusing on a specific aspect of classroom activity like teacher question types or number of times students initiate questions. Using these forms of classroom observation in combination allows the student to engage in the everyday reality of the ELT classroom and hopefully to reflect on their own ideas about teaching.

However, in the context of short teacher training courses such as CELTA and CertTESOL, the reality is a lack of time to train course participants in observation. Further, trainees are not given the opportunity to go beyond a simple record of observable classroom procedures to explore the experienced teachers' underlying philosophy of teaching and how this has influenced the choices s/he makes (Richards, 1998: 142). Ramani (1987: 8) suggests that, at the very least, ELT teacher trainees should be required to attempt to 'deduce the "theory" underlying' the teaching they have observed, rather than simply recording, either quantavely or qualitatively, classroom procedure. Richards (1998: 143) suggests the following about observation of ELT teaching:

1. Observation should have a focus (i.e., trainees should know what they're looking for).
2. Observeres should use specific procedures (i.e., traines should be given tools such as a checklist or list of interaction types).
3. The observer should remain an observer (i.e., trainees should not be attempting to teach part of the lesson whilst observing).

Richards goes on to suggest that trainees as observers should be given opportunity to engage in conversation with the experienced teachers so as to provide opportunity to uncover the 'why' behind the 'what'. In the context of short courses, this is quite difficult, as Chapter 9 will detail, due to time constraints. However, Ramani's suggestion (see also Day, 1999) of observing video-recorded sessions and discussing underlying teaching philosophy with a tutor and/or a larger group of trainees provides a possibility for more reflection on observation in a limited timeframe.

The *CELTA Syllabus and Assessment Guidelines* (UCLES, 2007a) do not offer insight into whether or not students are given tools to guide their classroom observations. However, Roberts (1998) notes that CELTA providers provide candidates with a task sheet for the observation of teachers as well as pre-course readings intended to focus observations. Trinity College London's CertTESOL validation requirements specify only that the observation must be 'guided', leaving interpretation of this up to the individual course provider (TCL, 2006a).

4.3: Practicum Research: Where Are We Now?

Unfortunately, research on the Practicum component of teacher education in general is scarce, particularly research into the ELT Practicum (Johnson, K.E., 1996a: 30; Leshem & Bar-Hama, 2007). Certainly, 'We need more insights into the process of student teaching and its contribution to teacher education' (Ben-Peretz & Rumney, 1991: 517). However, as interest in teacher education as a reflective activity gains popularity, interest in the Practicum is also on the rise due to the light it can cast on how one's past influences one's ideas about teaching and learning (Crandall, 2000).

Following this concept, Johnson (1994), recognizing that teachers' beliefs play a critical role in how teachers learn to teach, studied the second language learning and teaching beliefs of four pre-service ESL teachers in a Master of Arts program in TESL. These teachers participated in a fifteen week university level ESL course, and Johnson used their teaching journals, the cooperating teachers' journals, observations, and interviews with the pre-service teachers as sources of data. She found that prior experience played a powerful role in the development of these pre-service teachers' images of themselves and of teaching, despite the fact that most if not all of the teachers were aware of this fact as well as how inadequate their experience was in giving them a

full picture of teaching and learning. Johnson concludes that teachers need many alternative images of teaching to supplement those from their past. Rather than engaging solely in reflective activities centered around the past, teachers need to be given examples of good teaching against which they can compare their experience.

Two pivotal studies about the TESOL Practicum were published in 1996 by Johnson and by Richards, Ho, and Giblin. Karen Johnson, recognizing that little is understood about what occurs in the TESOL Practicum, set out to 'provide descriptive evidence of the initial teaching experiences of one pre-service teacher during the TESOL Practicum' (Johnson, K.E., 1996a: 30-31). Johnson used weekly observations, interviews, videotapes, and journals during the fifteen weeks that one pre-service teacher, Maja, participated in an M.A. TESOL Practicum in an urban, secondary level ESL program. As the study progressed, Johnson noted a major gap between Maja's vision of second language teaching, and the realities of the TESOL Practicum. In her initial interview, Maja had said that although she had never taught before, she had a strong opinion about what constituted good teaching. However, halfway through the Practicum, 'The realities of teaching had begun to overwhelm her to the point that she appeared to be separating herself from the Practicum experience' (Johnson, K.E., 1996a: 40). Johnson echoes her own previous research (Johnson, 1994) when she argues that teachers lack the practical knowledge required to cope with the realities of the classroom and concludes that teacher preparation programs truly need to put forth a realistic view of teaching that recognizes the realities of classroom life and prepares pre-service teachers to cope with them.

Richards, Ho, and Giblin's (1996) study examined how five trainee teachers responded to the UCLES/RSA Certificate in TEFL (now CELTA) in Hong Kong. The authors specifically looked at the effect of the practice teaching experiences on the trainees, the aspects of teaching they found problematic, and the development of their ideas and beliefs about teaching as they progressed through the program. The authors noted that the UCLES/RSA course 'focuses on the practical rather than academic or theoretical aspects of teaching and seeks to give trainees a broad perspective of current classroom practice', an observation that rings true with the present-day CELTA course (Richards, Ho & Giblin, 1996: 244). Fundamental to this study was their identification of the three basic phases of a lesson which the UCLES/RSA program clearly identified as the keys to a good lesson: presentation, practice, and production. After analyzing audio-recorded discussions between tutors and trainees and self-report forms, the

authors conclude that the use of a well-established model of teaching, such as PPP, should only be seen as a starting point in learning how to teach. They also note the need for trainers to identify the questions and problems each student teacher has. They argue that this is due to the fact that individual teacher trainees interpret the model of teaching put forth by the UCLES/RSA course in different ways based on their own teaching experiences and beliefs and assumptions about themselves, teachers, teaching, and learners (Richards, Ho & Giblin, 1996: 258).

Moving beyond research specifically into the ELT Practicum, the last few years have seen a variety of studies centering on the field experience component of other forms of teacher education. Perry and Power (2004) reviewed 97 empirical studies focusing on learning to teach, finding that most of the teachers in question were enrolled in conventional programs. Responding to this, the authors determined to move beyond the conventional Practicum component and 'to engage pre-service teachers in a process of development and learning rather than feeding them the knowledge believed crucial' (Perry & Power, 2004: 126). They argue that conventional teacher education is essentially transmission-oriented, using coursework to impart classroom theory, skills, and knowledge and relying on the school to provide the field setting where that knowledge is subsequently applied. This philosophy of teacher education translates to the Practicum in such a way that students often end up imitating the cooperating teacher without examining why or whether such imitation was justified. Perry and Power conclude that the conventional model of field experience has three main limitations:

1. the focus is on observable behaviors[6]
2. practical knowledge remains implicit[7]
3. inquiry is missing[8]

With these limitations in mind, Perry and Power transformed the field experience component of the one-year Elementary/Middle Level M.A. in Teaching course at the University of Maine. By requiring cooperating and pre-service teachers' collaboration on action research originating in the classroom, pre-service teachers were challenged to

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[6] The program operates under the assumption that learning to teach involves simply collecting multiple teacher experiences rather than discovering and examining the teaching principles held by each cooperating teacher that govern the choices s/he makes.

[7] Although the conventional model focuses on immediately useful activities, the teacher's thoughts are not accessed. The authors note, 'Only when mentor teachers share their implicit theories, their thinking behind their teaching practices, will pre-service teachers realize that modeling their mentor teachers' observable behaviors…is only skimming the surface of learning to teach' (p. 129).

[8] Perry and Power argue that teachers need to engage in reflection on, clarification and development of, and appreciation for personal teaching theories both originating with themselves and with other teachers. (Perry & Power, 2004: 129)

move beyond the conventional Practicum to a practical experience that recognized teachers' multiple roles and the contextual complexities of life, including the day-to-day concerns and unique challenges of each classroom, in schools.

Ben-Peretz and Rumney looked at non-ELT practice teaching in six institutions, both university type and seminar type (i.e. teacher education colleges), hoping to gather data into 'actual messages transmitted in practice teaching settings' (Ben-Peretz & Rumney, 1991: 517). More specifically, they were interested in answering questions about the mode of interaction, whether it tended to be authoritative or cooperative, between cooperating teachers, university tutors, and student teachers, and questions about whether or not the cooperating teachers and student teachers have different perceptions of the nature of the messages transmitted in the Practicum. They observed lessons given by student teachers and the subsequent conferences between the cooperating teachers and the student teachers. They also administered questionnaires focusing on the expectations of participants concerning practice teaching and their perceptions of their actual experiences. They conclude that there was a lack of in-depth professional reciprocal reflection in the post-lesson conferences and propose that the Practicum be more jointly planned with the students so as to create a supportive, non-evaluated climate.

Additional Practicum research examines issues like the timing of the Practicum within the teacher education program. Maxie (2001) documents what she calls a blended program, which allows students in early college years to engage in field experience rather than wading through extensive coursework before setting foot in a classroom. In spring of 1999, *Teacher Education Quarterly* published an issue entitled 'Planning, implementing, and evaluating a field-based teacher education program'. The articles within document the restructuring of the teacher education program, including the timing of the field experience, at Queen's University in Canada. Martin, Hutchinson, and Whitehead (1999) describe four aspects of change within the program, each placing a new emphasis on learning through experience:

1. an extended Practicum
2. placement of teacher candidates with associate schools rather than with single associate teachers
3. field-based courses completed during the extended Practicum
4. replacement of the honorarium for associate teachers with faculty support for school improvement projects

Upitis (1999) explains this restructuring process further by arguing that placing the emphasis on field-based experiences in schools rather than on university-based classes grounds pre-service teachers' learning in the reality of the classroom. In the restructured program, pre-service teachers are placed immediately in an extended field experience prior to any coursework, giving them a taste for what goes on in the classroom and, in her opinion, increasing their receptivity to the theory behind teaching they would later study.

Cotton (1999) writes from the perspective of a teacher-in-training within the same program and talks about the differences between the conventional B.Ed program and the restructured program.

> Whereas the early months of the [conventional] B.Ed. program would have focused on planning, preparing, and gathering resources, the extended fall [autumn] Practicum built upon these discrete elements, exposing teacher candidates to more comprehensive, holistic experiences. (Cotton, 1999: 74)

Cotton writes gratefully about his complete integration within a school, allowing him to witness the entire staff's preparation for a new school year and observing the first day of classes. Adding to his story, Hutchinson and Martin (1999) follow the experiences of five similar teacher candidates in the restructured teacher education program at Queen's University and note that when teachers are encouraged to critically examine their beliefs, change takes place, but when beliefs are not challenged, they remain stagnant. Whitehead et al. (1999), evaluating the restructured program by means of focus groups and individual teachers, found that the overall reaction to the new program was very positive, concluding that candidates 'valued highly those aspects of the program which were perceived by them as being directly connected with the field and as having immediate relevance for practice' (Whitehead et al., 1999: 86).

Connecting teachers' beliefs and the Practicum component of teacher education, Goldstein and Lake (2003) documented nineteen pre-service teachers' preconceptions about 'caring', which they seem to define somewhat vaguely as a positive teacher-student relationship, and how these preconceptions were challenged, affirmed, or transformed during the field experience in an Elementary Classroom Organization and Management course. Noting that beliefs about caring tend to stem from experience as students, cultural values which link women and caring, and images of teaching within popular culture, the authors acknowledge that these beliefs are likely to be stable and not easily changed. Unfortunately, a weakness of this study is that the authors fail to define what they mean by 'caring' and only provide the vaguest of explanations by

mentioning the tension between 'caring' and attending to daily teacher duties. Examining the electronic dialogue journals exchanges of their participants, Goldstein and Lake found that the pre-service teachers struggled with the tension between caring and attending to other more practical duties of teachers like meeting deadlines, etc. They concluded that as time went on, the participants saw that their beliefs about caring, such as the belief that 'caring' means acting as a babysitter or a good friend, were unable to account for the complexity of the classroom and would have to change. Recognizing that although the teachers' beliefs did not change dramatically during the course, however, the authors make an important point when they note that, most likely, the participants' beliefs would continue to grow and change throughout their career. They note, 'Letting go of inadequate prior conceptions of teaching is only a benefit to pre-service teachers if the new conceptions and metaphors they adopt are fuller and richer than the ones left behind' (Goldstein & Lake, 2003: 127).

Kagan (1992) provides a valuable summary of additional research into the Practicum component of general teacher education. She cites McLaughlin (1991), whose study examines changes in how student teachers evaluate themselves, Pigge and Marso (1989), who looked at changes in attitudes, concerns, and self-confidence in student teachers, and Florio-Ruane & Lensmire (1990), whose study charts changes in beliefs, perceptions of pupil learning, and the nature of writing instruction. Additional studies like Aitken and Mildon (1991), Gore and Zeicher (1991), and Shapiro (1991) scrutinize changes in student teachers' perceptions, personal knowledge, and level of self-reflection. Griffin (1989), Borko et al. (1991), Chamberlin and Vallance (1991), and Jacknicke and Samiroden (1991) all engaged in what Kagan refers to as 'Comprehensive evaluations of practica or student teaching experiences' (Kagan, 1992: 137), documenting changes in beliefs, perceptions, and knowledge of classrooms. Each of these studies, although not about language teacher education specifically, provides insight into the nature of personal beliefs and images about teaching and under what circumstances they are likely to change.

Other research has examined issues surrounding the Practicum component of teacher education. In a study which emphasizes the importance of collaboration between schools and student teachers, Fisher, Frey, and Farnan (2004), for example, examined the impact of pre-service teachers' presence on student learning in Practicum classrooms, concluding that classes with student teachers ran more smoothly according to the cooperating teachers. Examining the issue of stress during the Practicum, Murray-

Harvey's (2001) study investigates effective coping strategies for teacher education students in Practicum courses. Approaching the Practicum from yet another angle. Hudson, Bergin, and Chayst (1993) identify factors that inhibit the effectiveness of pre-service field experience, including lack of quality control, lack of common goals, and lack of cognitive scheme with which to make sense of observations. Reiman and Parramore (1993) and Thomson, Beacham, and Misulis (1992) conducted research into the value or lack thereof of an extended Practicum, and other researchers have examined interpersonal relations (Grimmett & Ratzlaff, 1986) and the role of cooperating teachers in influencing student teachers' attitudes towards teaching (Dispoto, 1980).

In summary, then, as expected, research into the general teacher education Practicum is much more prolific than that into the ELT Practicum. Further, the focus of non-ELT Practicum research differs greatly from ELT research, including topics such as reforming the Practicum component beyond the traditional model (including issues such as timing of the Practicum, increasing emphasis on the Practicum over the taught component, and exposing trainees to the practical, everyday duties of teachers) and topics examining the perspective of student teachers, including their self-evaluation, attitudes, concerns, self-confidences, and stress. Certainly, there is research examining changes in student teachers' beliefs as they complete the Practicum component, but other topics dominate, indicating that the topic of beliefs is still relatively new to teacher education research.

On the other hand, although 'the bulk of classroom-based research on second language teaching has focused on effective teaching behaviors, positive learner outcomes, and teacher-students interaction' (Johnson, 1994: 440), the small amount of recent research into the ELT Practicum has focused mainly on topics such as changes in pre-service teacher beliefs and perceptions of the Practicum from the student teachers' perspective. However, what few studies exist have been, and continue to be, conducted by a relatively small number of researchers, such as Jack Richards, Donald Freeman, and Karen Johnson, calling attention to the need for additional researchers to investigate their claims and expand their discussion. In particular, I have been unable to find any ethnographic study of the ELT Practicum component where the researcher also acts as participant. Certainly,

> a better understanding of pre-service teachers' perceptions of the Practicum may enable the field of second language teacher education to better understand how second language teachers learn to teach and how teacher preparation programs can effectively enhance this development process. (Johnson, K.E., 1996a: 47)

Toward that end, this project has as its aim understanding pre-service teachers' perceptions from the dual perspective of insider and researcher, the advantage being thus encountering first-hand the daily thoughts, feelings, perceptions, and perspectives of the pre-service, short-term ELT Practicum participant.

Chapter 5: Section I Conclusions

Previous chapters have explored topics such as the different philosophies of teacher education, the nature and importance of teachers' beliefs, the structure and role of the Practicum component of teacher education, the structure and nature of short-term teacher education, and research trends both in terms of general educational research and more specifically in the Practicum component of teacher education. When looking at these themes as they relate to one another, several key conclusions can be drawn:

1. In recent years, teacher education has tended to answer the theory vs. practice debate in favor of practice, largely due to student teachers' strong desire for easily applicable and practical teaching techniques. Short-term language teacher education is a strong example of such a philosophy, with courses such as the CertTESOL and CELTA providing pre-service teachers around the world with both a practice-focused curriculum and a speedy initiation into the ELT field.
2. Focus on the 'hidden side of teaching' (Jackson, 1968) in contemporary research has shed light on the importance of both pre-service and in-service teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning. In particular, the seeming inflexibility of such beliefs in the face of pre-service teacher education calls into question the structure and content of such programs.
3. Short-term teacher education is quickly gaining a corner on the 'market' of English language teacher education, warranting a closer look at what goes on in such courses and whether its advantages outweigh the disadvantages discussed in previous sections.
4. Although research into how pre-service teachers' beliefs change and develop during teacher education is on the rise, little research has been conducted into this topic in language teacher education in particular and even less in terms of its Practicum component. Pre-service teachers highly value the Practicum component, often seeing it as the crux of their teacher education, warranting further study into the effect it has on pre-service teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning.

In light of these conclusions, the chapters that follow will provide details regarding the design and implementation of and conclusions from an examination of the Practicum component of short-term teacher education during a Trinity CertTESOL course, offering a rare glimpse into what expectations pre-service teachers have about the Practicum, their beliefs about teaching and learning, and how they are changed as a result of the short course.

SECTION II: RESEARCH DESIGN, METHODOLOGY, AND IMPLEMENTATION

Chapter 6: Research Aims and Design

Section I provided the background to this study, establishing the need for further research into the impact of the short ELT teacher training course, and particularly the Practicum component, on course participants' (CP) beliefs about teaching and learning. This chapter will therefore provide, first, the specific research questions guiding this study and further rationale for such aims, and, second, the particulars of the research design implemented to meet the research aims.

6.1: Research Aims

The primary aim of this research study is to document the experiences of CPs enrolled in a pre-service, short-term, TESOL Certificate course, particularly during the Practicum, as well as to investigate the course's influence on CPs' beliefs about teaching and learning. To meet this aim, additional questions surrounding the nature of the course itself and how it impacts CPs in other ways, such as behavior, are necessary in order to provide a holistic account. In addition, as this study will be focusing on one particular Trinity CertTESOL course provider, the stories of experienced ELT teachers who completed a course of this kind early in their careers will be sought in order to provide an account of long-term influences.

I have argued that past studies, although providing some insight into the nature and impact of the short course, have been limited both by the small number of researchers investigating this area of research as well as past studies' research design (often relying heavily on questionnaires and self-reported data exclusively). That said, recent studies like Borg's (2002) investigation of the CELTA course and Baxter's (2003) look at the broad issue of professionalism and how it is constructed and reproduced in both CELTA and DELTA courses have added to the slowly growing body of research on short-term teacher education. However, in neither of these studies did the researcher enroll on a short-term course. As Chapter 7 will detail, the framework of participant observation adopted in this study provided an insider perspective that was immensely valuable both in gaining trust from the other CPs and for understanding firsthand the overall experiences, stresses and workload of the short course. In this way, this research fills a gap in the literature on short-term teacher education, which often

adopts the perspective of teacher trainers or outside researchers. These outsider points of view, although valuable in many ways, provide only a partial picture and must be supplemented by an understanding of the experiences of trainees.

Therefore, this research project had the following questions. organized chronologically:

Pre-Practicum

1. What expectations do pre-service ELT teachers undergoing this particular short-term teacher education course have about the CertTESOL course as a whole as well as, more specifically, the Practicum component? What are their motives for enrolling in this course? What do they hope to get out of it? What role do they believe the Practicum should play in the course?

2. How, if at all, is the Practicum component integrated into other components of the CertTESOL course? Are teachers encouraged to think about the Practicum component in a certain way? How does the Practicum component integrate within the overall teacher education philosophy of the course provider? How do the tutors view the Practicum as compared with other elements of the course?

3. What relationship, if any, does the teacher education program have with the Practicum cooperating schools? In what ways are CPs prepared (in terms of observation skills) prior to beginning the Practicum component?

Practicum

4. What is the nature of the Practicum component itself on the CertTESOL course? How are pre-service teachers monitored during their observation and practice-teaching time? What is the nature of the feedback they receive? Also, what thoughts and feelings do the participants have about the Practicum and the course as a whole as it progresses?

Post-Practicum

5. How are pre-service teachers beliefs about teaching changed as a result of the CertTESOL Practicum? Are their expectations about the Practicum met or disappointed? Are there other ways in which course participants change during the course, such as behavior or attitude? If not, what impediments to change exist? As a result of the course, do participants enter the field confidently, in their own opinion, or are they discouraged from teaching ELT?

6. Post-program, at several intervals (3 months, 6 months, 1 year) after the program has ended, are all of the participants teaching ELT? How is 'real' teaching different from Practicum teaching? What has changed, in terms of belief. behavior, and attitude since completion of the program? What has remained the same? Do they feel they need additional training?

Experienced Teacher Input

7. What can the Certificate memories and career stories of experienced teachers reveal about the short course in terms of its lasting effects? What do experienced teachers see as the short course's strengths and weaknesses in preparing them for

the field? What advice would they offer to trainees embarking on short-term ELT teacher education, both the course as a whole and the Practicum component?

In order to meet these aims, this study focuses on twelve CPs on a full-time, short-term (four weeks of direct contact learning with a pre-program distance learning component) Trinity CertTESOL course, using the framework of participant observation. In addition, six experienced teachers were interviewed to provide data to answer research question seven.

6.2: Research Design

This study was primarily ethnographic, incorporating features of ethnography such as participant observation, multiple data collection sources and methods, thick description, reflexivity, and grounded data analysis. The following sections will explain the theoretical principles guiding this qualitative research study.

6.2.1 An ethnographic research methodology

As stated in the introduction to this thesis, qualitative research design assumes certain things about social settings, namely, that they cannot be reduced to a set of objective truths but must instead be interpreted with the aid of an insider or emic point of view. Such a perspective on the world emerged from the tradition of social anthropology in the twentieth century, which 'pioneered an approach that involved close acquaintance with pre-industrial groups and cultures by close immersion and observation' (Brewer, 2000: 11). This approach, as the next sub-section will detail, adopts an interpretive rather than a positivist stance, which has drawn criticism for its seeming abandonment of 'objectivity, predictability, predictability, controllability, the construction of laws and rules of behaviour, and the ascription of causality' (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000: 28).

One emphasis in qualitative research is 'on understanding reality as the participant sees it – the participants' interpretation' (Davis, 1995: 433). This 'emic' or 'insider' perspective becomes important in research where the participants' point of view is of central interest to the study. Such is the case for this research project, where participant observation, rooted in ethnography, (Davis, 1995; Lazaraton, 2003), is most appropriate because I am interested primarily in the beliefs, attitudes, and opinions of

short-term teacher education CPs. Where other research paradigms would distance me from the CPs and limit my insight into CPs' perspectives and the reasons underlying them, my dual roles of researcher and of eyewitness provide access to the subjective meanings of the insiders.

> *Participant observation*...simply codes the assumption that the raw material of ethnographic research lies out there in the daily activities of the people you are interested in, and the only way to access those activities is to establish relationship with people, participate with them in what they do, and observe what is going on. (Agar, 1996: 31)

This project includes other elements of naturalistic, ethnographic research such as observation and informal interview as well as detailed and lengthy description of events, most often in an informal writing style (Denscombe, 1998; Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000). Lazaraton (2003) identifies five important elements of ethnographic research which were crucial for this project: recognition of positionality (subjectivity), prolonged engagement, triangulation of data sources, thick description, and data-driven analysis. Elaborating on the first element, Denscombe (1998) notes that ethnographic research must be reflexive by acknowledging the researcher's interpretation of events as part of the equation and including a reflective analysis of how the researcher's own beliefs and values are affecting the research.

> We always bring to experience frames of interpretation, or schemata. From this point of view the task of fieldwork is to become more and more reflectively aware of the frames of interpretation of those we observe, and of our own culturally learned frames of interpretation we brought with us to the setting. This is to develop a distinctive view of both sides of the fence. (Erickson, 1986: 140, cited by Davis, 1995: 437)

Because of my role as a participant in this study, reflexivity in this context meant not only providing details regarding my preconceptions which I brought with me to the course but also making explicit the ways in which the realities (stress, work load, etc.) of the short course influenced my perspective.

Also important to this research is systematic thick description, involving detailed and lengthy descriptions of events, which provide credibility to the researcher's assertions (Davis, 1995). The notion of thick description was first introduced by the philosopher Ryle (1971), although it was popularized by Geertz (1973) in the field of ethnography. Describing thick description as 'render[ing] obscure matters intelligibly by providing them with an informing context' (1983: 152), Geertz opposed a behaviourist description of a particular context or group of people that focused primarily on physical events in favor of a description that included beliefs, ideas, attitudes, and thoughts of

those present in a particular context (see also Rosenbaum & Silber, 2001). In so doing, thick description, realized in an informal writing style, provides the foundation for ethnographic research and acknowledges the complexity of the group in question and the many factors that explain and influence the group's perspective. Bradley (1993) notes that thick description provides transferability, an important criterion for trustworthy research which refers to the extent to which working hypotheses can be applied from one context to another. Thick description allows the reader to make a comparison between one context and another and judge the applicability of the hypotheses to the reader's own situation. In this context, thick description comprises the foundation for exploration of why and how CPs are impacted by the short course, providing explanations for such impact based on the intricacies of the course in general and of the particular course provider in question.

Another characteristic of ethnographic research is its preservation of the naturalness of the setting. Denscombe (1998) and Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2000) note that ethnographic research takes place in a natural setting with as little interference as possible so that the researcher can obtain the subjective meanings of insiders without influencing these meanings. In order to obtain access to a natural setting, the researcher must carefully negotiate entry, facing difficulties such as entering a group that is already established and integrating into the community without disturbance (Agar, 1996). In this respect, I was at an advantage since all of the CPs were strangers prior to arrival, allowing me to enter on a similar footing (i.e. as a new participant) as the others. However, the potential of my presence's influencing the particular group dynamic still existed. Although certainly I could not avoid influencing the CPs in some ways, particularly in asking them to be perhaps more reflective than they might otherwise have been, I preserved the naturalness of the setting in the following ways:

- Although I contributed to in-process conversations about the heavy work load, stress, preference of one aspect of the course over others, etc., I never initiated such conversations, and limited my participation to expressions of sympathy or laughing at jokes about the course, etc.
- I avoided answering the tutors' questions during input sessions and generally avoided talking about my experience and expertise.
- I made as few statements of opinion as possible, responding to CPs queries with avoidance strategies like change of subject.

Ethnographic research also implies a certain approach to data collection and analysis. In particular, 'the researcher must be cautious about prematurely imposing categories on the setting, and [must wait]... for the natural context to unfold so as to

reveal internally valid categories...' (Sutton, 1993: 413). This inductive approach informs the types of data collection that can be used, such as a focus on informal rather than structured interviews, and holistic note-taking that narrows over time rather than note-taking that focuses only on specific events early on in the research. As the researcher approaches data analysis, data-driven methods become important. This involves inductive data analysis where categories arise from the data as opposed to being determined by the researcher before data is collected (Denscombe, 1998; Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2000). Reason (1981) provides a helpful explanation of this process.

> The information that is gathered in the field situation is used by the holist to build a model which serves both to describe and explain the system .The model is built by [quoting Diesing, 1972: 155] 'connecting themes in a network or pattern;' the connections may be of various kinds, but they are 'discovered empirically rather than inferred logically' [p. 156]; the result of this is an empirical account of the whole system. (Reason, 1981: 185-186)

So then, as the researcher compiles data, categories emerge, and connections are made.

In summary, the use of an ethnographic research methodology means focusing on the 'emic' or 'insider' point of view of a particular group, using tools such as participant observation, thick description, reflexivity, and data-driven analysis to bring this perspective to light whilst uncovering any researcher bias. For this particular research project, the framework of participant observation, rooted in principles of ethnography, suits the research context as well as the research questions. Such a choice is seen frequently in the many sub-fields of educational research (see Brewer, 2000), largely due to the messy and unquantifiable nature of classrooms. However, beyond these reasons, the choice of this particular methodology suits me as a researcher, an individual with a background in literature and writing that has the potential to contribute to the development of the thick description which characterizes ethnographic research.

6.2.2 Critique of participant observation

As previously noted, ethnography and participant observation have their roots in anthropology and sociology and were adopted as a means to account for the complexity of naturally occurring settings which positivist research had previously avoided (Brewer, 2000). In the field of education, 'ethnography posed the possibility of opening up the "black box" of schooling and thus revealing the "content" of education to critical examination' (Jordan & Yeomans, 1995: 390). However, in so doing, ethnography and

participant observation have drawn criticism from some who argue that the social sciences should be modelled on the natural sciences (see Platt, 1981). LeCompte and Goetz (1982) identify the principle differences between the interpretive stance adopted in participant observation (and much of social sciences research) and the positivist stance, which have led to criticisms stemming related to validity and reliability. These include:

1. formulation of the research problem
2. the nature of the research goals
3. the application of results

These basic differences will lend structure to the discussion that follows of common criticisms of ethnography and participant observation.

First, in formulating the research problem, participant observation seeks to take all variables into account, including the researcher herself, avoiding the positivist practice of holding constant or eliminating extraneous variables so as to identify clearly the effect of a particular treatment on a setting or research subjects. The benefits of this are clear: a holistic account of the setting is thus achievable. However, as a result, some potential problems exist. For example, an ethnographic/participant observation study may be almost impossible to replicate, given that the numerous variables are specific to the context (Schwartz & Schwartz, 1955: 346; LeCompte & Goetz, 1982: 35). In particular, the variable of the researcher unavoidably impacts the research context and may even limit the credibility of the informants. As Schwartz and Schwartz (1955: 356) note, 'Together the observer and the observed constititute a context which would be different if either participant were different or were eliminated'. Further, certain participants may gravitate towards or attract the researcher (LeCompte & Goetz, 1982), resulting in a representation of a social group which is atypical. In answer to these criticisms, some writers have stressed the importance of both thick description and reflexivity (see previous sub-section), which aid in transferability (Jordan & Yeomans, 1995: 394). In addition, as Becker (1958) points out, the researcher must be skilful in ascertaining her role in the group and making explicit ways in which this role has impacted the data. A related question arises regarding to what extent the researcher can be a true participant, given the division of labor that hinders the harmonization of the two roles (Jordan & Yeomans, 1995: 399). Although the relationship between these dual roles cannot be completely resolved, care can be taken by the researcher to maintain a proper balance (Brewer, 2000: 60; for further discussion, see 7.2.2).

Second, the interpretive research stance adopted in ethnography and participant observation differs from positivism in its research goals, avoiding a priori constructs and pre-determined hypotheses in favour of finding 'a theory that explains [the] data' (LeCompte & Goetz, 1982: 34). As the previous sub-section detailed, this approach stems from the view that social contexts are unpredictable and that their presentation involves obtaining insider information in ways which the researcher cannot definitively anticipate until present in the setting. This results, however, in the problem of a largely unstructured and changeable data collection and analysis plan hinging on the individual researcher's discretion and thus threatening internal reliability. Further, as Brewer (2000) notes, the researcher's account may be partial, selective, and even autobiographical (see also LeCompte & Goetz, 1982: 37). Interpretivist researchers have argued, in answer to such criticisms, that these problems can be largely overcome by peer examination of data, team observation of the context, mechanically recorded data, and a reflexive account that extends beyond the researcher's self-reflection to include an uncovering of the dynamic between the researcher, the research process, and the research results' (Jordan & Yeomans, 1995: 394).

Finally, participant observation stemming from an interpretive research stance differs from positivism in its application of results. Whereas more experimental designs involve generalization to a wider popular, participant observation and ethnography focus on transferability and comparability, which are left to the reader to a large extent, who must ascertain the ways in which his/her context is similar to that described by the researcher (Erickson, 1979; LeCompte & Goetz, 1982). This difference has invited criticism from both positivists, who argue that ethnography can thus have little relevance for the broader social world, and postmodernists, who assert that in an interpretive stance, 'Everything solid melts into air, every structure dissolves and every truth statement is contingent and relative' (Brewer, 2000: 24; see also Denzin, 1992; Richardson, 1992). These points have serious implications for participant observation, requiring the the researcher be diligent in uncovering any potential generalizability for the benefit of a wide audience. Brewer (2000: 53; see also Erickson, 1979) argue that despite the limitations on generalizability, 'small-scale, micro events in everyday life have at least common features with the broader social world' and that by establishing the 'wider relevance of the setting and the topic, and clearly identify[ing] the grounds on which empirical generalizations can be made', the researcher can at least partially answer to the objections of more positivist researchers.

Despite the multitude of criticisms levelled at participant observation, it remains an immensely valuable framework for understanding the intricacies of social contexts, such as teacher education courses. As Erickson (1979) and others (Becker, 1958; LeCompte & Goetz, 1982; Brewer, 2000) point out, most of the arguments against it can be minimized by extensive pre-planning (as far as it is possible), awareness of constructs used by other researchers in similar settings, clearly identification of the researcher's role and status within the group investigated, explicit methods of data collection and analysis, and, overall, 'good luck and by getting one's act together in the field and afterwards' (Erickson, 1979: 183).

6.2.3 Data collection and analysis

Freeman (1996b: 367) identifies three fundamental methodological questions for any research project, which provide the structure for the discussion that follows. These questions are: What are the data, and how are they linked to the purposes of the study? How is the data gathered? How is the data analyzed and interpreted, and by whom? , This sub-section will detail the answer to each, keeping in mind the previous discussion regarding potential limitations of participant observation.

6.2.3.1 What are the data, and how are they linked to the purposes of the study?

This study relies on data gathered from the context of a CertTESOL course both during the entire length of the course as well as the following nine months. In addition, data was collected in the form of semi-structured interviews and/or written autobiographies (collected via e-mail) with six experienced teachers, all of whom completed a short ELT teacher training course early in their career. The data was collected according to Martin Denzin's (1978) framework of methodological triangulation, using multiple qualitative methods of collection. Data collection methods included:

- field notes
- unstructured and group audio-recorded interviews with CPs
- semi-structured, audio-recorded interviews with course tutors
- demographic and follow-up questionnaires
- course documents
- a personal journal
- the CPs' teaching practice (TP) journal entries
- e-mails from CPs and course tutors
- semi-structured, audio-recorded interviews with experienced teachers
- written autobiographies of experienced teachers, collected via e-mail

The majority of these forms of data collection are used in quite a few beliefs studies (see Cortazzi, 1991; Richards, Tung & Ng, 1992; Kyriacou & Cheng, 1993; Bramald et al., 1995; Grossman, 1995; Bailey et al., 1996; Woods, 1996; Richards & Pennington, 1998) and enabled me to acquire information about the participants' beliefs about and experiences on the short course, particularly the Practicum, from a variety of sources, reinforcing the validity of the research. Each of the forms of data collection will be discussed in greater detail in the next sub-section.

6.2.3.2 How is the data gathered?

As a CP, I had direct access to the other CPs and participated in all aspects of the course, including extracurricular social activities, though these were few, consisting of a few informal gatherings in the library, a birthday get-together between classes, and a dinner at a local restaurant. The sampling of participants was a combination of convenience and critical-case sampling, meaning that I used only those participants who were willing to participate (convenience) and those who were relatively new to the field of ELT (critical-case), though some had limited ELT teaching experience and/or significant past teaching experience in another field, such as English literature. This sampling is typical of short-term ELT Certificate courses, where there is often a mix of young university graduates seeking travel opportunities and older individuals from varied backgrounds looking for a new experience or a retirement activity.

The majority of the data was collected over four weeks, the duration of the direct contact phase of the CertTESOL course. In keeping with Cohen, Manion, and Morrison's (2000) description of ethnographic research, data collection began with a detailed description of the course, including the setting (nature of the classrooms, number of CPs, etc.), scheduling, and content organization. The forms of collection that followed included, as mentioned previously, a demographic questionnaire, informal interviews and conversations, field notes, course documents, including any Trinity publications specifically about the course's structure and content, personal journals, e-mail correspondence with CPs and course tutors, and CPs' Teaching Practice (TP) Journal entries. E-mailed autobiographies and semi-structured interviews with experienced teachers formed the final source of data. A discussion of each follows.

Questionnaires

Questionnaires are frequently used in social research when straightforward information is required and the social climate is open enough to allow full and honest answers (Denscombe, 1998: 88). However, for various reasons, participants often cannot be relied upon to provide accurate statements regarding their beliefs, values, and perceptions, rendering questionnaires best used in the context of collecting purely demographic information. Along these lines, then, questionnaires are not relied heavily upon in qualitative research because of the complexity of the data the researcher is interested in.

With this in mind, a preliminary questionnaire was administered the second day of the CertTESOL course, asking the twelve other CPs for their language background, age, ELT experience, and ELT teacher education experience. Using this information, I was able to formulate informal questions specific to each CP's experience for use in unstructured interviews and casual conversations. These questionnaires also provided a solid record of each CP's background and educational and work experience. This was the only use of questionnaires as a data collection method during the course itself.

In addition to this demographic questionnaire, on-line follow-up questionnaires were administered by e-mail to CPs three months after the completion of the course. Although this was not ideal, interviews having the potential to provide richer data, obstacles such as travel distance prevented me from collecting follow-up data in any other way from the majority of the CPs. However, I supplemented the follow-up questionnaires with e-mails asking for clarification, where necessary, to combat the common problems associated with questionnaires, such as 'how far people tell the "truth", how far they understand the question anyway, [and] how far the social impact of a questionnaire will influence perception' (Holliday, 2006: 3).

Although I had planned to administer similar follow-up questionnaires at six months and nine months after the course, this plan was changed due to the low level of initial response, requiring some urging via e-mail to get more than two or three CPs to send me their answers. To fill this gap, then, I adopted a different strategy, sending informal e-mails at various points in the nine months following the course, resulting in follow-up data from nine of the twelve CPs.

Although only seven of the twelve CPs completed the original follow-up questionnaire (again, with some urging), this form of data collection provided information regarding which participants had begun teaching or pursuing jobs in the

field of ELT. In addition, it indicated whether or not their future plans included further ELT teacher education and which ideas about teaching had changed and/or remained the same since the end of the course. The follow-up questionnaire also provided an opportunity to delve into each CP's reflections about the course as well as what advice, if any, they would offer to trainees embarking on short-term ELT teacher education.

Key issues surrounding the construction of all questionnaires used in this study included avoidance of bias and the assurance of validity and reliability in the questionnaire. These were accomplished by avoiding leading questions (i.e. Would you advise future trainees to come prepared for a difficult and stressful four weeks?) and using primarily open ended questions to invite honest and personal comments (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000).

Informal interviews

Interviews are a commonly used form of data collection in qualitative research because they provide data based on emotions, experiences, feelings, sensitive issues, and privileged information (Denscombe, 1998: 111), which social research aims to explore. Interviews fill holes that observation cannot, often providing the 'why' behind the 'what', and are typically unstructured or semi-structured rather than structured to allow participants to guide the exchange and the researcher to be as unintrusive and unimposing as possible.

In both semi-structured and unstructured interviews, the researcher doesn't use a written list of detailed questions. Instead, for unstructured interviews, the researcher relies primarily upon the introduction of an initial theme or topic to 'get the ball rolling' and allow the interviewee to pursue his or her own train of thought (Denscombe, 1998: 113). In semi-structured interviews, the researcher prepares a 'repertoire of question-asking strategies from which [s/he] draw[s] as the moment seems appropriate' (Agar: 1996: 140). Some examples of how this is accomplished include using expressions of interest to encourage the informant to keep talking, repeating what the informant has just said as an invitation to elaborate, and asking a specific question about the last statement, inviting the informant to elaborate in a specific direction (Agar, 1996).

Originally, my research plan included weekly, semi-structured interviews with CPs during the course. However, once the course began, this plan quickly changed due to the high work load and stress levels of the CPs, who were understandably hesitant to timetable additional 'work' on top of their already rigorous schedule. For this reason,

very few semi-structured interviews were conducted, and, in their stead, casual conversations often among several CPs, sometimes approaching the form of group interviews, were audio recorded between input sessions. Brewer (2000) comments on the use of conversation, noting,

> Some forms of unstructured interviews can be so informal that they almost take the form of natural conversations, and skillful interviewers can manage and manipulate the topic choice to an extent that it constitutes an interview. (Brewer, 2000: 65)

This type of informal, unstructured interview was suitable for this project in that it avoided the problem of placing additional stress and work on participants. In addition, since participants felt as if they were simply engaging in natural conversation, albeit gently guided at times in certain directions by the researcher, their answers were largely unguarded and authentic[9]. In addition, the group informal, unstructured interviews provided data regarding the group dynamic as well as the 'consensus views' of the CPs (see Denscombe, 1998: 113).

Although I allowed the CPs largely to guide the unstructured interviews, I inserted new questions or conversation topics when it seemed appropriate. These 'prompts' were typically broad questions about past experience, course components, and general reflections on their course experience. For example, in many of the taped conversations, the CPs were asked to tell stories about their language learning experience and guided to talk about their conceptions of good and bad teaching as well as their ideas about the role of the Practicum. Certainly, this may seem quite broad. However, as each participant was likely to have had strong beliefs about certain facets of teaching over others, the quite general questions (i.e. What kinds of things constitute good teaching, in your opinion?) were designed to allow participants to speak freely on topics and ideas that occurred to them first and resonated strongest with them individually. The storied approach, where individuals are asked to relate their ideas by giving examples from their past, (Woods, 1996) was used for two important reasons. First, personal narratives generally aid in the analysis of data from teachers, and second, beliefs may not always be entirely consciously accessible, meaning that teachers might just say what they think you want to hear.

Aside from audio-recorded conversations with CPs, which constituted one of the largest forms of data, another source of interview data came from audio-recorded, semi-

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[9] The authenticity of their comments was apparent particularly in their openness about their shortcomings during the course, i.e. they sometimes told me that they were throwing the course handouts in the bin or that they felt insecure about their teaching.

structured interviews with several course tutors. In these interviews, they were asked general questions about the nature of the course as well as the role of the Practicum within the course and how it fits within the course philosophy of teacher education. Again, general questions to 'get the ball rolling' (i.e. How did you get involved in teacher training?) were used to invite honest and unique responses from each individual, although some tutors responded better to the initial prompts than others. Finally, data was collected from experienced teachers in the form of audio-recorded, semi-structured interviews, using the strategies Agar (1996) suggests, outlined in previous paragraphs. General questions (i.e. How did you get into the field of ELT?) to elicit the respondents' stories of their entry into and experience in the field of ELT were used.

Field notes

As mentioned previously, participant observation is a key element of ethnographic research and refers to the assumption that in order to uncover the nature of a particular culture or society, it is necessary to become directly involved in the community. As a researcher engages in participant observation, field notes represent 'the record of an ethnographer's observations, conversations, interpretations, and suggestions for future information to be gathered' (Agar, 1996: 161). Wolfinger (2002: 89-91) identifies two strategies for note-taking, salience hierarchy and comprehensive note-taking. Salience hierarchy is governed by whatever is most salient to the researcher, whatever strikes him/her as most noteworthy, interesting, and telling. This type of note-taking is highly subjective and often results in limited data which does not usually provide a full picture of what is happening in the research context. Comprehensive note-taking, on the other hand, involves systematically and comprehensively describing everything that happens during a particular period of time. The researcher generally starts with a generalized list of concerns and records every event that occurs within these broad boundaries. In this way, the researcher records all events, some of which, although seemingly mundane at the time, may and probably will prove extremely valuable to the research.

In order to engage in comprehensive note-taking, I took field notes throughout the duration of the course, documenting events not captured by audio-recording, such as facial expressions and other body language as well as conversations that occurred before the audio-recorded was switched on. These field notes also included detailed and holistic descriptions of what occurred each day, including the layout of the rooms,

seating arrangements, and my own thoughts, feelings, and opinions as I participated in and observed the course.

Personal journals

Agar (1996: 163) commends the use of personal journals in ethnographic data collection, arguing that they provide material that contribute to personal accounts and explicitly bring the ethnographer's role into the research process. This form of data collection was highly useful to this project in two ways: first, it encouraged reflexivity, uncovering ways in which background and bias affected the research and involvement in the setting in question. Second, it documented the stresses and day to day concerns of participating in a short-term teacher education course and, more specifically, the Practicum component.

Each journal entry included the field notes I had handwritten that day, interspersed with my emotions, thoughts, and reflections as they occurred to me while writing. Additionally, the journal entries included evidence of (Chapelle & Duff, 2003):

1. how any power differences between myself and the participants were negotiated
2. how my attitudes and bias shaped the data and how my perspectives changed throughout the course of the research
3. how my activities and behavior impacted the community

As a result of merging field notes with journal entries, the boundary between these two forms of data was largely obscured, although I found their integration immensely helpful since typing my field notes caused me to reflect on each event in more detail and integrate my thoughts with the day's events. However, because of this, all references to either my field notes or journal entries in subsequent sections will be labeled with the term 'field notes'.

Documents

Documents and artefacts related to the research setting are a valuable source of data for the participant observer. Although 'They are more likely to fill in the bits rather than paint the whole picture' (Denscombe, 1998: 162), documentary data can be a source of data in its own right. Brewer (2000) identifies several ways in which documents are classified: primary/secondary, contemporary or retrospective, and personal or official. Table 6.1 provides further detail of these distinctions.

CONTEMPORARY PRIMARY Compiled by the writer at the time		CONTEMPORARY SECONDARY Transcribed from primary sources at the time	
Personal	**Official**	**Personal**	**Official**
Letter. Tape of talk. Suicide note.	Court record. Hansard. Census. Minutes of meeting.	'Ghosted' autobiography. Edited transcript of talk, letters, etc.	Research using the census.
RETROSPECTIVE PRIMARY Compiled by the writer after the event		**RETROSPECTIVE SECONDARY** Transcribed from primary sources after the event	
Personal	**Official**	**Personal**	**Official**
Diary. Autobiography. Life history. Oral history.	Novels. Historical archives. Film archives.	Research using diaries. Biography using the subject's autobiography.	Medical records. Parish records. Newspaper reports.

Table 6.1: Classification of documents (Brewer, 2000: 73)

According to Brewer's classification, the following types of primary documents were utilized as data for this study:

1. Contemporary
   a. Personal: E-mails from course tutors, CPs and experienced teachers
   b. Official: Course documents and publications
2. Retrospective
   Personal: CPs' TP Journals

The CPs sent me both solicited and unsolicited e-mails periodically throughout the four-week duration of the course as well as during the nine months afterwards, providing supplementary data to information collected via their TP journal entries, conversations/interviews, and questionnaires. In addition, e-mails from course tutors and experienced teachers comprised other sources of contemporary, personal documents.

In terms of contemporary, official documents, all course materials, including books, articles, course handouts, and Trinity publications that guide and standardize Trinity courses were analyzed for content that encourages course providers or participants to think about or approach the Practicum component in a certain way. Additionally, as these documents were in some ways unrepresentative of what actually occurred in the course (see Chapter 8), they provided insight into how validation documents might be viewed and interpreted by a specific course provider.

A final documentary source of data was the CPs' Teaching Practice (TP) Journals, which can be considered retrospective primary documents, as they were written by the CPs primarily after each teaching event. I gained informed consent to use

eleven of the twelve CPs' TP Journals, and this source of data provided a valuable window into their beliefs about teaching and learning, the nature of reflective practice on short term courses, and the CPs' teaching behavior, particularly since I was unable to observe every teaching event.

6.2.3.3 How is the data analyzed and interpreted, and by whom?

As a previous sub-section on the features of ethnographic, participant observation research outlined, qualitative data analysis is characterized by the use of data-driven methods and involves 'making sense of, sifting, organizing, cataloguing, [and] selecting determining themes' (Holliday, 2006: 99). This begins during data collection and is a process involving revisiting the data numerous times to examine and re-examine the data, validating one's conclusions, and discovering deviant cases (see Agar, 1996; Brewer, 2000). However, although data analysis of course documents began long before the four-week course began, ongoing data analysis during the primary data collection phase (the four weeks on the course) was nearly impossible, largely due to time limitations, work load and stress level. The limitations this has on the implications of this study will be discussed further in the final chapter; however, this was unavoidable. And, in fact, although ongoing data analysis would have allowed me to find and fill holes in the data, choosing the role of participant observer along with the accompanying stress and anxiety allowed me to gain insight into the experiences of the other CPs, which outweighed the need for data analysis in situ. That said, some ongoing data analysis did occur during data collection. Similar to Bailey et al. (1996), I adopted a participatory stance, meaning research participants were asked, albeit in a limited fashion due to time constraints, to analyze, discuss, and elaborate on the stories of their language learning experience as well as any statements of belief they made about teaching. In addition, as mentioned in the previous sub-sections on the utilization of field notes and personal journal entries, my perusal of and reflection on my field notes each evening and daily journal entries comprised the initial stages of analysis. As mentioned previously, I reflected on each day's events captured in my field notes and posed questions regarding what had happened to serve as a guide for subsequent observation. The following field notes excerpt serves as an example of this:

> An interesting point in the course information was about the practice teaching: 'This is your opportunity to put into practice the theory you will be learning throughout the course'. I wonder if much theory will be actually taught or if the focus will be more on practical things like lesson planning and materials selection. It was interesting

that [tutor's name] mentioned that the language profile that we are required to complete wherein we interview a non-native speaker and analyze their pronunciation, writing, reading, and listening, is the 'major piece of work of the course', comprising about 3,000 words. Another question that has arisen for me at this point is why this is the 'major work', and if it is intended to have more focus than other assignments, why is this so? (FN, July 2, 2005)

After the primary data collection phase, combined with limited ongoing data analysis, the process of organizing the data into manageable units began, starting with the six-month process of transcribing and condensing (removing irrelevant/unusable portions of data like privileged, personal information) approximately 80 hours of audio-recordings into 150+ pages as well as transferring the CPs' hand-written TP Journals into electronic files (approximately 200 pages). Although this was extremely tedious, it familiarized me with the data and brought to light recurring themes and issues. Although analysis of the majority of the data began immediately after this process, data collection in the forms of follow-up questionnaires, e-mails, and interviews with experienced teachers continued for nine months after the course ended (see Table 7.1 on p. 84).

Once the data had been transferred into usable formats (i.e. transcribed from audio and hand-written format to Word documents), the process of moving from messy, complex data to coherent themes began. However, certain difficulties inherent in this project made this process lengthy and difficult. Apart from the documents published by Trinity College London, the data collected and used for this study was originally categorized chronologically rather than thematically, primarily for ease of access. For example, each field notes entry was stored in my computer with a file name corresponding to the date it was created. Likewise, all audio transcriptions were divided into files under similar date-names. This made cross-comparison between my field notes and any transcriptions, e-mails, or documents collected on a particular day both quicker and easier. This chronological categorization resulted in a particular approach to data analysis that echoes Holliday's (2006) discussion of movement from chronology to themes. Like Holliday, I moved from a chronological account of the events I observed and recorded to a more practical, condensed and 'coherent, thick description' of the emerging themes (Holliday, 2006: 107). The initial, chronological account was comprised, firstly, of a description of the setting and a play-by-play account of the four-week course as well as biographical sketches of each course participant. This process was aided by the use of a system of tables where data was organized according to

theme, research participant, time of collection, and type of data. Following these chronological and biographical descriptions, themes began to emerge. resulting in the reorganization, along thematic lines, of a more condensed version of the thesis content.

In this way, data analysis and the process of writing up the data were overlapping processes. I worked with the data in an iterative fashion (see Davis, 1995: 444; Freeman, 1996b: 371), meaning that I returned to the data multiple times to verify and extend the meanings revealed as the analysis progressed. Of particular interest were themes, beliefs, and ideas that arose from the data multiple times as I moved from chronological description to thematic categorization. However, an exact number was not used to determine whether or not a certain theme could be deemed 'recurring'. Rather than setting the boundaries of the 'significance' of a particular theme in terms of its number of occurrences in the data, any negative cases in the text that might contradict the emerging themes were used to set such boundaries. For example. Chapter 10 explores evidence of the overall lack of change in the CPs' teaching behavior during the Practicum at AU but also presents the deviant case of one CP, whose behavior and beliefs about teaching underwent a radical shift. Such an approach is consistent with the literature on qualitative data analysis (Denscombe, 1998; Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000), where the search for and presentation of confirming, negative and discrepant cases gives robustness to research conclusions.

6.3: Researcher Identity

An additional and incredibly important element of qualitative research is the inclusion of details regarding the researcher's self (Denscombe, 1998: 212). Although great care is taken to ensure reliability by the use of detailed explanation of the research aims and implementation. triangulation of data collection methods, and embedding of data into discussion of emergent themes, the impact of the researcher is unavoidable. This is certainly the case particularly in the context of postgraduate research, where the luxury of additional data coders is rarely available. However, making explicit the ways in which my self-identity, beliefs, values, background, and experience impacted this project created an 'audit trail' containing key decisions and their rationale. This allows the reader to judge the reliability and validity of the findings. Reflexivity has thus been interwoven among the subsequent chapters, although an additional summary of relevant biographical content about me is provided in the following paragraphs.

I entered the field of ELT in Fall, 2001 via an M.A. course in Applied Linguistics/ESL at a university in the southeastern United States. I had just completed a summer of theoretical linguistics modules at the Summer Institute of Linguistics and had transferred my degree to this new university due to its proximity to my family and the scholarship it offered. In this way, I entered ELT on a fairly high level, not having completed a TESOL Certificate course or even a TESOL undergraduate module. The lecturers on the M.A. course emphasized the importance of extended teaching practice, action research, and theoretical input as well as professional development in teacher education, all of which I was required to engage in and later grew to deeply appreciate.

During my degree course, I began teaching EAP both in my department and, in my final semester, full-time for another university, a job which extended for two years beyond my completion of the M.A. in 2002. Also after completing my degree, I began lecturing on a two-year TESOL Endorsement (teacher education) program at a small, private college. During my creation and implementation of this program, I began to read in the literature and hear at professional conferences about short teacher training programs both in the US and wordwide. In fact, when my employer began considering a shorter, summer 'version' of the TESOL Endorsement program, I lobbied successfully against it based on my teaching experiences on the two-year program as well as criticisms against the short course I had both read and heard. I found it difficult to believe that two years of input, discussion, reflection, practice teaching, and teacher development could be compressed into a one-month program without detrimental effects on the trainees. Through these experiences, therefore, I became interested in the thereoetical underpinnings of the short course, particularly given that my employer had become interested in it based primarily on its marketability.

In summary, I approached this study from what might be argued to be a privileged and critical perspective. Regarding the first point, many pre-service teachers do not have the time, the opportunity, or the funds, not to mention the desire, to enter the field as I did. However, I made enormous sacrifices to complete my graduate degree, working full-time for its duration and commuting two hours each way to attend classes. For this reason, the second point regarding my critical perspective is perhaps more crucial. My experiences in the roles of teacher trainee, teacher, and teacher educator in the particular institutions I was involved with have given me misgivings about the notion of short-term teacher training, which have most certainly affected this

study. That said, I attempted at every turn to counter this bias. A further discussion of specific examples of such attempts can be found in Chapter 7.3.1.

Certainly, my background and beliefs form an essential component of a reflexive account. However, Brewer (2000: 126ff) argues that reflexivity extends beyond the presentation of biographical data to include such things as discussing the wider relevance of the setting and topic, critically assessing the data, discussing power relations, and providing data extracts in the text, among others. Having done these, the ethnographer can, Brewer argues, make claims in the text and produce a 'single, authoritative account...that can be replicated' (p. 133). Along these lines, subsequent chapters (see particularly Chapters 7 and 8) will provide a holistic, descriptive account of the research procedure as well as the research setting and participants to allow the reader to assess the credibility and transferability of the claims made in this thesis.

6.4: Meeting Ethical Guidelines

Because this research involved human participants, certain ethical guidelines had to be met. 'The University of Sheffield's Ethics Policy' outlines principles which seek 'to protect both participants involved in research activities undertaken by University researchers, and the researchers themselves' (University of Sheffield, 2005: 5). This research project met all guidelines laid out in this document. In particular, principles of safety and well-being, informed consent, coercion, and anonymity were all directly applicable in this case.

In order to meet the ethical guideline of ensuring the safety and well-being of all participants, the content and line of questioning in both the interviews and the questionnaires used in data collection did not include items which ask participants to reveal highly sensitive, confidential, or personal issues. In addition, all participants were repeatedly informed of reliable methods of contacting me should they experience stress, have concerns, or desire to discontinue their participation. Also of concern was the issue of reciprocity, the exchange of goods or services for the participants' time and effort. Certainly, every researcher should strive to make his/her research beneficial not only to the field but also to the participants. As Marshall and Rossman (2006: 81) write, 'When people adjust their priorities and routines to help the researcher, or even just tolerate the researcher's presence, they are giving of themselves. The researcher is indebted and should be sensitive to this'. To alleviate any additional stress placed on

participants, I offered myself as a 'sounding board' when participants expressed anxiety, provided chocolates every day, and offered to take undesirable teaching slots.

Denscombe (1998) notes that in covert research the researcher does not have informed consent, which raises substantial ethical problems. Certainly, when the researcher is undercover, participants act more naturally and honestly, allowing the researcher to move more freely without participant anxiety. However, in covert research, participants are, in a sense, deceived and denied privacy. For these reasons, I engaged in overt research, seeking and gaining informed, written consent from all participants. Again, in order to meet 'The University of Sheffield's Ethics Policy' (2005), participants were notified on a consent form (see Appendix A) of the general objectives of the project, how data would be collected, who was undertaking and supervising the research, what participation would require, and any potential risks and inconveniences that could arise. Under no circumstances were individuals coerced into participating. For example, when I asked the CPs to sign a consent form that would allow me to use their TP Journals as data, I reminded them that they should not sign if they were uncomfortable with the use of their journals in this way. When one CP, Sharon, seemed to indicate with her body language and withdrawal from the group that she was uncomfortable signing the form, I did not pursue it with her and did not use her journal as data.

In order to protect the confidentiality of all participants, the names of the setting, course tutors, and CPs were not used in any published form of this project. 'Protecting participants involves guaranteeing that information obtained during the study from and/or about individuals will not be available to others, that is, that anonymity will be ensured' (Davis, 1995: 442). Access to the data was restricted to me, my supervisor, and the participants themselves, who had access only to those portions of data that originated with them.

An additional ethical concern was the ownership of the data and results, to whom and when it would be released, and whether or not participants had the rights to veto the results (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2000: 142). In this project, all participants were notified in writing of their rights of access to any written output as well as opportunity to negotiate possible exclusion or inclusion of any data or results in the written output, although I claim ownership of all data, results, and written output. In addition, plans were made to disseminate a copy of the thesis to all participants who wished to view it, particularly the Trinity CertTESOL provider.

6.5: Limitations and Obstacles

The limitations and obstacles of this research will be discussed in greater detail in Chapter 11 but will be briefly mentioned here as they were anticipated in part prior to the start of the project. Of primary concern was completing all the coursework and engaging fully as a CP whilst collecting and analyzing data. I anticipated collecting data for a minimum of twelve hours each day during the four weeks of the course. In fact, far more of my time was needed due to the number of course assignments. For this reason, as indicated in the previous sub-section, data analysis, though conducted in part during the course, had to be postponed until after the course was completed. However, the research took priority over the course assignments in some respects, particularly in that I did not devote as much time to coursework as I normally would have, focusing heavily on data collection.

Another anticipated limitation of this study was its transferability, the extent to which its hypotheses could be applied from one context to another.

> On the one hand, a strength of qualitative studies is that they allow for an understanding of what is specific to a particular group, that is, what can not possibly be generalized within and across populations. On the other hand, the [data-driven data analysis] established by interpretive qualitative studies...allows for transfer to a wide range of cultures and social situations. Essentially, the onus is on the reader of an interpretive qualitative study to determine whether and how... one study applies to another situation. (Davis, 1995: 441).

In order for the reader to make this determination, Bradley (1993) notes that thick description and explicit presentation of deviant cases aid and provide transferability. This allows for comparison and application to be made from one context to another. Both data-driven analysis and thick description, being present in this project, aid in transferability.

This research project was highly dependent upon whether or not an adequate number of willing participants could be acquired. In order to overcome this potential obstacle, this research was conducted during the busiest time of year for one CertTESOL course in the hopes that this would increase the likelihood that an appropriate number of participants (at least eight) could be used. However, my research strategy included a contingency plan in the event that the amount of participants and data proved to be inadequate, involving obtaining consent from the course director to observe future courses to collect additional data.

Finally, a potential obstacle was inability to contact the participants after they left the program. Although I planned to ask for the permanent e-mail addresses and possible mailing addresses of each participant, I had to prepare for the event of the participants' moving to another location or changing e-mail addresses within the nine months after the course ended. Also, there was the potential that participants would not reply to my request for additional information. For these reasons, I decided to include data from experienced ELT teachers in the form of their teacher training and early career stories. Although I was later able to obtain follow-up data from nine of the twelve CPs, the experienced teachers' stories provided additional information regarding how ELT teachers view their initial training in retrospect.

In summary, although certainly not all obstacles and limitations to this study could have been anticipated, great attempts were made to anticipate and strategize in preparation for those likeliest to arise. Indeed, researchers in every context need adequate preparation founded on 'an extensive discussion of a plan for dealing with issues before they present dilemmas and also as they may arise in unanticipated ways in the field, using the advice and experience of previous scholars' (Marshall & Rossman, 2006: 72).

Chapter 7: Research Procedure

The previous chapter outlined the research aims and design, including specifics of data analysis. This chapter will provide details regarding the actual implementation of the design, including the time frame of this project, issues associated with obtaining access and recruiting and working with teacher trainees as research participants, and research obstacles and ethical issues that arose during data collection.

7.1: Time Frame of Research

The majority of the data collection occurred during the four-week, direct contact phase of Atlantic University's[10] (AU) CertTESOL course in July, 2005 (see Table 7.1) with additional data collected in the nine months following the direct contact phase of the course. The course's daily routine included input sessions (lectures), held generally from 9:00 am – 5:00 pm, and teaching practice, held from 6:00 – 8:00 pm. The course began on a weekend and ran for a full week from Saturday until the following Friday the first week and then only on weekdays after that. The first three weeks contained at least one full day of self-managed time during which we were able to plan lessons, consult with tutors about our lesson plans, and work on assignments.

Crucial to this research was close and consistent involvement in every aspect of the course, including informal interaction before, after, and between timetabled lectures and teaching practice.

> The intent behind this close involvement and association is to generate data through watching and listening to what people naturally do and say, but also to add the dimension of personally experiencing and sharing the same everyday life as those under study. (Brewer, 2000: 59)

In order to maintain this close involvement, I arrived at least thirty minutes ahead of everyone else on the course each morning. I attended every input session and stayed on-site during lunch and other break times either in the 'base room' where input sessions were held or in the Learning Centre (library) depending on where people tended to congregate. I also observed the teaching practice sessions each evening from 6:00 until 8:00 p.m., making sure I was the last to leave, again to ensure I was present for all interviewing/observation opportunities. I then went home and spent a further minimum

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[10] Atlantic University, like all proper names used in this thesis, is a pseudonym.

of two hours typing up my notes and recording my field notes and any additional observations, feelings, ideas, and attitudes while they were still fresh.

Month	Data Collection	Data Analysis
July, 2005	CertTESOL Course (2 July – 29 July, 2005) Primary data collection, including: • unstructured and semi-structured interviews • field notes • journal • audio recordings of lectures • course documents • CPs' teaching practice journals.	Limited data analysis consisting of write-up and review of field notes and descriptions of events
Aug., 2005	• Solicited and unsolicited e-mails from CPs	
Sept, 2005		
Oct., 2005	• Distribution of on-line questionnaire • Solicited and unsolicited e-mails from CPs	
Nov., 2005	• Semi-structured interview with experienced teacher	
Dec., 2005		
Jan., 2006		Ongoing data analysis and write-up
Feb., 2006	• Semi-structured interview with and teaching observation of one CP, Carl • Semi-structured interview with experienced teacher • E-mailed autobiographies from experienced teachers	
Mar., 2006	• Solicited and unsolicited e-mails from CPs	
Apr., 2006	• Additional e-mailed autobiographies from experienced teachers	

Table 7.1: Data collection and analysis timetable

Typically, few if any CPs came to campus on the Study Days (self-managed time). On these days, as well as on the weekends, I would spend several hours in the Learning Centre, catching up on assignments and lesson planning since the rest of my time was devoted to interviewing, observing, etc. I also used the Study Days to complete semi-structured interviews with the course tutors, five of whom I was able to interview. In all, I collected data and worked on course assignments for approximately twelve to fourteen hours per day.

As Table 7.2 indicates below, I was able to observe the majority of the CPs' teaching practice at least once, and in some cases, up to four times over the duration of the course. However, I was unable to observe William's teaching due to his anxiety

about being observed, nor was I able to observe Dave's teaching due to scheduling conflicts. In addition, my observation of both Rory and Donald was done only in the context of a team-teaching event, again due to scheduling and Rory's anxiety about being observed. Finally, I did not have access to Sharon's TP Journal due to her uneasiness with signing the consent form and was only able to observe her teaching once. As a result, my analysis of teaching behavior (see Chapter 10) focuses on eleven of the twelve other CPs, analysis of four of which relies solely on tutor feedback.

During my observation of teaching practice, I sat in the back of the class and wrote a minute by minute account of what occurred in the classroom. Later, I recorded my reflections about each observation in a personal journal. During data analysis, I compared my field notes and journal entries with the notes written by the observing tutor to look for changes in behavior. What emerged was a pattern of behavior in both my own notes and the observing tutors', which was established by focusing on behavior either exhibited and recorded more than once (constituting a pattern of behavior) or exhibited at least once with change in behavior later noted by either me or the observing tutor.

Date	First Teaching Slot (6-6:50 pm)	Second Teaching Slot (7-7:50 pm)
July 7	Amber, Matthew, Rebecca (team-teach session)	
July 8	John (team-teach session)	
July 11	Carl	Laura
July 12	Sharon	
July 14	Amber	Matthew
July 15		John
July 18	Carl	
July 19	John	
July 20	Kate	Rebecca
July 25	Rory (team teach)	Carl and Donald (team teach)
July 26		Amber (team teach)
July 28	John	

Table 7.2: Researcher's teacher observation schedule

In order to meet the criterion of prolonged engagement crucial to ethnographic research (Lazaraton, 2003; Denscombe, 1998), I maintained e-mail, phone, and, in one case, face-to-face contact with the majority of the CPs (all who were willing) for the nine months following the course's completion. Three months after the course had ended, I asked them, via e-mail, to complete an on-line questionnaire (see Appendix C) regarding their thoughts, feelings, and reactions to the course as well as to find out which of them, if any, had started English language teaching and where. Seven out of twelve replied, and I was then able to clarify their answers with them, and in one case,

meet face to face to observe their teaching and discuss their answers further. In the months following, I attempted further contact using a more informal e-mail style (i.e. How are you doing?, etc.) to encourage further contact and received e-mails from two additional CPs, one of whom provided valuable insight into the impact the course had had on him personally.

To summarize, seven of the twelve CPs provided extensive follow-up data in the year following the course, and an additional two provided limited data regarding their current employment situation and/or the course's impact on them. I received no reply from three of the twelve, and in some cases, I received e-mails stating that e-mails to their inboxes were 'undeliverable'.

Finally, I conducted semi-structured interviews with and solicited written autobiographies via e-mail from six experienced teachers in the period of February through March, 2006. The semi-structured interviews were approximately 45 minutes each in length, and the autobiographies ranged from two to ten pages in length.

7.2: Obtaining Access to the Research Site and Participants

7.2.1 Access to the research site

Obtaining access to an ethnographic research site where the researcher becomes a student may seem, at first glance, to be somewhat more straightforward than other ethnographic case studies simply because one can generally gain access to a course by applying and paying the fees. Rebekah Nathan's (2005) ethnographic research on undergraduate student life seems to support this notion: to become a student, she simply applied to her own university with an undeclared major and was accepted. In the case of the CertTESOL course, entry requirements include a minimum age of eighteen, qualifications for entry to higher education, competence in written and spoken English substantiated by completion of an application form, basic grammar test and oral interview, and some indication that the trainee has the 'energy and emotional' stamina to complete a four-week intensive course (TCL, 2006a: 6).

However, gaining access to this CertTESOL course site was not completely straightforward. Unlike Nathan (2005:6) who discusses the 'delicate balancing act

between truth and fiction about my life', my research was completely overt, and in order to avoid ethical complications, written or verbal consent from all research participants, including both tutors and CPs, was an important element to the research design. When I applied for entry onto the course, I stated in my required handwritten letter that while I had genuine interest in seeking another teaching qualification, my primary interest was research. My application was promptly rejected. In my rejection e-mail, the course leader in charge of the application process not only stated that I was overqualified and unsuitable for the course but also stated that my presence would upset the balance of the group. In a later e-mail (March 17, 2005), this same tutor told me that because the CertTESOL course at AU is atypical, it would probably not be a good location to carry out my research.

I was able to arrange a meeting with the course leader, and I was given entrance to the site after providing her with a typed summary of my research aims, interest in the course, and my background as well as a letter of support from my PhD supervisor. The course leader gave me an acceptance packet, including a pre-course interview test (consisting of very basic grammar questions) which she told me to complete at my leisure at home. I was also instructed to come back the following week to pick up my distance learning packet.

As Denscombe writes, 'Gaining access to people, places, and events is a crucial part of successful ethnographic research...To do this, they [the researchers] need to engage in negotiations that have political, ethnical, and practical implications' (Denscombe, 1998: 76). In this particular case, the entry negotiations were far from over. During the first week of the course, the fact that the 'interview' tutor had not communicated my research intentions to the other tutors quickly surfaced when some of the tutors reacted disapprovingly to my audio recordings, either confronting me verbally (as in the case of one tutor) or making their disapproval known to the Head of AU's TESOL Centre. Despite this setback, I was able to quickly arrange a meeting with the Head of the TESOL Centre and show him the documents I had given the 'admissions and interview' tutor and the signed consent forms from all of the CPs. Although one of the course tutors continued to view my presence with disapproval, this issue was thankfully later overshadowed by other course-related issues like the CPs' complaints about the take-home exams (see Chapter 9). In summary, however, as McKay (2006) points out, obtaining consent from *key* administrators is a crucial first step to gaining access and avoiding future problems.

7.2.2 Working with teacher trainees

The process of recruiting teachers as research participants is a difficult one, and even the available research literature provides only limited advice regarding this crucial stage of teacher education research. Even after obtaining consent from key administrators, researchers in this context may quickly realize that teachers and teachers-in-training most often do not wish to have their teaching scrutinized by outsiders and face heavy workloads and professional duties that outweigh any desire to engage in sometimes lengthy interviews and paperwork. For this reason, engaging in research on teachers and teacher education is fraught with its own set of difficulties in regards to access as well as issues of power distance (see Hobbs & Kubanoyiova, in press).

However, the fact that the social dynamic of groups of teacher trainees is not established until day one of the course is a strong advantage in terms of access. Unlike some conducting ethnographic research, I did not have to negotiate my way into an existing social framework nor win the trust of individuals already in each other's confidence. Instead, I arrived on the course with the same standing as the others: a new student in a new environment. However, asking the CPs to complete extra work on an already intensive course and winning the trust necessary to gain access to their true feelings and thoughts was a source of anxiety and an obstacle to completing data collection in such a short period of time. A distinctive feature of this research site was this transience; the group of CPs was both banded and disbanded in the short time-span of one month, making it impossible to employ a softer approach that perhaps permanent research sites can afford to researchers. I was painfully aware that I needed to make my research intentions known early enough in the course to begin documenting every possible source of data, and one particularly telling stage of this process was documented in my field notes.

> Before the [first] class began, several other students were talking and asked me why I was attending the course. I mentioned that I was documenting my experience, and one laughed and said that no doubt I'd be asking them to fill out a questionnaire of some sort towards the end. This made me feel nervous about asking them to do any extra work. (FN, July 2, 2005).

In an effort to win the CPs' approval and gain their participation and consent early on in the course, I adopted a strategy using reciprocity (see p. 86). This helped to create that much needed atmosphere of trust and reciprocity which may have led one CP to write in an e-mail after the course that he felt this research had been conducted sensitively, respectfully, and professionally. Other CPs wrote comments to me like,

'Keep the chocolates coming!', indicating that the strategy was working and was appreciated.

Largely due to my strategy of reciprocity, written consent from the participants was obtained fairly easily, and as the demographic questionnaires were issued before the time-consuming course assignments began, the CPs filled these out willingly as well. However, the issue of power difference, often a formidable obstacle to ethnographic research (Chapelle & Duff, 2003) and to obtaining access to research participants, was a more ongoing issue during data collection. My position as researcher often seemed to the CPs to be that of an 'evaluator' or 'authority figure', and, in some situations, the CPs seemed to feel intimidated or nervous at the thought of their actions and conversations being recorded and analyzed. For example, two of the CPs, William and Rory, were uncomfortable having me observe their teaching, and although they may have disallowed any of the other CPs from observing their teaching as well, Rory's behavior later in the course revealed that at least some of this discomfort stemmed from the perceived power difference between us. Towards the end of the course, when Rory was assigned to 'train' me to teach her pre-intermediate class, she showed this anxiety by repeatedly failing to come up with any solid lesson plan, asking me instead how I thought the lesson should be conducted. After my repeated assurance that I would be happy to go along with whatever plan she had in mind, she finally told me that she was nervous about working with me because I had an M.A. in TESOL (FN, July 25, 2005).

In her groundbreaking research on the significance of gender in the social lives of schoolchildren, Barrie Thorne (1993) discusses the ways in which she negotiated a shorter power distance between herself and her young research participants. She notes, 'I avoided positions of authority and rarely intervened in a managerial way, and I went through the days with or near the kids rather than along the paths of teachers and aides' (Thorne, 1993: 19). Thorne's practical insights, although written in the context of a larger power distance, were applicable to this research project. I rarely spoke in class, not only in order to preserve the naturalness of the setting but also so that CPs would have no reason to see me as a 'know-it-all'. I avoided long conversations with tutors in the presence of the CPs. I spent course free-time where the other CPs typically gathered, and I participated in, though never initiated, conversations with CPs about the hard work load, the long hours, and other similar issues that seemed to bond us together as a group. Finally, as visible actions like note-taking and audio recording seemed, on

occasion, to make the CPs feel my position as researcher more acutely, I attempted to do these things as inconspicuously as possible. In terms of notetaking,

> I quickly learned that for note-taking purposes, it's best to sit towards the back so that others won't be tempted to look at my field notes and be distracted by them or me to feel obligated to hide them with my hand in an effort to prevent them from feeling self-conscious or too curious. (FN, July 2, 2005)

As for the audio recordings, after the first week, I began placing the recorder in inconspicuous places like under a notebook and attempting to turn it on without others noticing. I also resorted to turning on the recorder as soon as I heard footsteps approaching the classroom to further downplay the somewhat dampening effect that it had on the CPs' level of comfort around me.

Using these techniques, the perceived power difference was dramatically decreased, and although some of the CPs, like Rory and Sharon, were never completely comfortable with my presence, the majority seemed to accept me into the group and take me into their confidence.

7.3: Research Obstacles and Ethical Issues

While written consent was obtained from all of the CPs, indicating that I could both collect and use audio and written data for my research, there were, nevertheless, both expected and unexpected obstacles to data collection as well as ethical issues that arose during the CertTESOL course. This section will discuss these two areas in detail, including the obstacles of researcher bias, difficult relationships with course tutors, and stress and time restraints, as well as the ethical issues of consent and confidentiality.

7.3.1 Researcher bias

Brewer (2000) points out the shortcomings of lone participant observers, noting that they 'are bound to be selective because of the impossibility of taking everything in, which is why multiple observers can sometimes be used' (Brewer, 2000: 62). Although every attempt was made to reduce selectivity and a focus only on 'the abnormal, aberrant, and exceptional', (Brewer, 2000: 62), my preconceptions about the course certainly served as an obstacle to completely unbiased and exhaustive data collection. As discussed in Chapter 6, because my entrance into the field of ELT was a two-year M.A. course in TESOL, I arrived on the course with a somewhat critical attitude towards a course that could hardly compete with a two-year degree. Second, the

literature I had read in preparation for this project had warned of certain themes in short-term ELT teacher training, priming me to notice such themes over others. The daily journal I kept is surely evidence of this. For example, my expectation, originating in the literature on short-term teacher training, that the PPP approach to language teaching would dominate the course led me to journal extensively about its inclusion in numerous input sessions. In addition, because I had read literature on the ways in which the verb form is prioritized in the language awareness components of short-term courses, I paid special attention to ways in which this was realized on the course. One particular field notes entry illustrates this point:

> Something else that strikes me is the fact that within the LA component, there is just so much focus on grammar, grammar, grammar! I will have to go back and look at the DL to check this, but it seems like the course just aims at mastering categories like noun, verb, preposition and different types of verbs. Again, may be my bias coming through, so I'll have to verify this…' (FN, July 3, 2005)

Because my daily journal entries were written at the end of each day, those things most striking to me were more likely to be included than those things perhaps less interesting or unusual. This bias was countered somewhat by a review and inclusion of my field notes while the journal was being written, but certainly, the fact that certain events were recorded and not others, even in my field notes, was inescapable. For this reason, I attempted to counter bias by beginning each journal with a narration of the entire day followed by reflections and thoughts on that day's events. However, certainly the effects of bias could not be completely eliminated. For this reason, triangulation of data sources was a constant goal, and the numerous sources of data used on the course were one way of ensuring that personal bias did not overrun data collection (see Brewer, 2000; Denscombe, 1998; Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000). In addition, constant awareness and exploration of bias also aided in countering its effects and ensuring that, as Denscombe notes, 'The reader of the research…is given valuable information on which to base a judgment about how reasonable the writer's claims are with regard to detachment or involvement of self-identity, values and beliefs' (Denscombe, 1998: 212).

7.3.2 Relationships with course tutors

As discussed previously, there was some difficulty in obtaining access to the research site and maintaining that access since I failed to ensure that my research plan was communicated to the rest of the tutors after my initial interview. This issue of access

had repercussions in my relationship with several of the tutors, some of whom reacted to my presence negatively or anxiously, which impacted and, in a few instances, limited my data collection. However, generally speaking, the tutors were extremely cooperative and helpful. In addition, the majority of the tutors had a positive relationship with the CPs, but not in every case, as is probably typical of most teacher education courses.

7.3.3 Obstacles of stress and time

Stress and time limitations were some of the biggest obstacles to completion of this research. As Nilan (2002: 365) writes, the ethnographic researcher often faces collecting every form of data possible because any part of it may end up being relevant. As discussed previously, data collection was conducted for twelve to fourteen hours Monday through Friday for the entire four weeks, with weekend time devoted to completion of assignments and lesson plans. Previous plans to review data daily, particularly audio recorded data, were quickly cast aside in favor of more pressing issues like the data collection itself. That said, stress is certainly a typical feature of qualitative research, and the notion of ethnographer as a super-being capable of seeing all, hearing all, and recording all is ridiculous, unattainable, and unnecessary (Massey, 1998).

7.3.4 Ethical issues

Several ethical issues arose during data collection. In particular, the fact that the course tutors were not notified of this project prior to the start of the course raised the crucial issue of informed consent and influenced data collection. Second, although my role as participant on the course eased power relations with the other CPs (see Strauss & Corbin, 1990: 42), my role as researcher created a problem at times. For example, some CPs faced overwhelming anxiety and nervousness during their teaching practice and saw me as an evaluator, despite my assurances to the contrary. Finally, although my role as participant facilitated greater trust from the CPs, it also raised the ethical concern of confidential and sensitive, private data. As indicated in Chapter 6, my intentions to use semi-structured interviews with the CPs gave way to practical considerations. This resulted in the use of unstructured, often group interviews, which contained personal information. Although this was a sign that the CPs were talking frankly with me, I nevertheless had to ensure confidentiality and privacy. Although, as Holliday (2006:

173) points out, personal data can be important for the qualitative study as a whole, great care had to be taken that the CPs were protected from exposure of personal information not intended for a wider audience.

In summary, my responses to ethical concerns were specific to the situation and sensitive to its particular needs. As Merriam (1998: 219) points out, there can be no definitive guide for ethical concerns. The burden of conducting research in an ethical manner lies ultimately with the researcher, who best knows the specific issues of the context.

SECTION III: DISCUSSION OF CONTEXT AND FINDINGS

Chapter 8: Atlantic University's CertTESOL Course

In preparation for a more detailed discussion in Chapters 9 and 10 regarding the influence of the short-term, pre-service course on CPs, this chapter will provide background into the Trinity CertTESOL course provider which served as the setting for this project. Although Trinity College has laid out very specific validation guidelines for its CertTESOL course providers, the course's implementation varies from provider to provider, thus justifying a look at how the particulars of one course provider influenced its impact on CPs. Beyond just a description of the setting, facilities, course tutors and CPs, and financial structure, this chapter will examine the published and implicit course objectives inherent in the Trinity guidelines as well as their realization at Atlantic University (AU). These will set the stage for a more comprehensive understanding of the forces at work in influencing CPs' overall course experience.

8.1: Description of Setting and Facilities

AU's TESOL Centre, based in the School of Education, began offering TESOL teacher education courses in 1985 and has since trained well over 2,000 teachers at Certificate, Diploma and MA levels (AU Handout, 2005). Currently, AU offers the CertTESOL (both part-time and full-time), the Trinity Diploma in TESOL, and an M.A., Postgraduate Diploma, and Postgraduate Certificate in TESOL (via Distance Learning only). At the time of my enrolment, the CertTESOL course was offered full-time four times a year and two times a year part-time, whereas the Diploma was only available twice per year and the other courses (MA, PgDip, and PgCert) only once per year. Since my completion of the course, AU now only offers the full-time CertTESOL course once per year in the summer. A recent conversation with a course tutor revealed that this change was due to low enrolment numbers and that more potential trainees want the part-time route, largely because the full-time route is too intensive, requiring leave or retirement from work.

Although AU also originally offered what was then the RSA CTEFLA course (now identified as CELTA), they eventually decided to maintain their links with Trinity College and cease their links with RSA (UCLES). As one tutor put it,

> We have also, we ran what was then the RSA CTEFLA course, but, and you know, I've been sort of marginally involved in that here and there, but you know, that said, I think the Trinity course is, amongst the courses that are entry level, the best one all round. That's why we stuck with it...it allows a lot more scope for individual centres to play more to their individual strengths... (July 6, 2005, Interview with Course Tutor)

In addition to teacher education courses, AU offers IELTS preparation classes, in-session ELT courses (funded by the university), pre-sessional courses in academic English, and a summer intensive English course. Interestingly, none of these courses are used for the Practicum component of the CertTESOL course; rather, AU offers free English classes several times a year to the public (asylum seekers, refugees, university students, etc.) and uses both previous CertTESOL CPs from the community (who are perhaps interested in gaining some additional teaching practice) as well as the current CertTESOL CPs to teach these classes.

At the time of my enrolment, the TESOL Centre was located on one of AU's campuses in a small building conveniently up the street from a modern library housing TESOL books, journals, audio/video cassettes and course materials. The library also contains study areas, computers, copying facilities, and audio and video equipment, available for use either in the library or to borrow for classroom use. Upon arrival, all CPs were given a copying card worth £10 to begin creating classroom materials.

During my time there, input sessions were held first in a small building (and equally small room) down the street from the TESOL Centre but were moved up to a larger classroom due to the number of CPs. Tables were arranged in clusters with several CPs sharing a desk and the tutor occupying the position at the front of the room. After sessions were moved to another building, tables were arranged in a u-shape around the tutor. For recording purposes, the first room was much more suitable. Its small size enabled me to hear the recordings clearly whereas the second classroom's larger size made recordings inaudible at times, something I would not discover until after the course was over.

Teaching observation and teaching practice sessions were held in a large, newly-built building next to the library. Each classroom was equipped with overhead projectors, computers with PowerPoint capabilities, cassette recorders, video machines,

and electronic whiteboards. Classrooms were quite large, able to comfortably hold up to thirty students, and contained more than enough desks and chairs for at least forty.

8.2: CertTESOL Tutors

At the time of my enrolment, apart from administrative staff, AU employed ten tutors for the CertTESOL course as well as an additional six observing tutors for teaching practice. Although these ten tutors all led input sessions at some point, certain ones were more prominent, leading multiple input sessions and serving as 'Duty Tutors', meaning that at specific times they were available to discuss CPs' lesson plans and offer advice.

All of the tutors involved in input sessions had achieved the Trinity TESOL Diploma, and many had also completed the M.A. in TESOL offered by AU. They had a great diversity of teaching experience, and most had taught at various locations and contexts around the world. Some had had books and journal articles published in the field of ELT, and several also acted as Trinity Moderators, meaning that they travelled to various course providers to examine CPs and ensure that course providers were meeting Trinity College standards.

I found the majority of the tutors at AU to be very helpful and knowledgeable, and the tutors seemed to be attempting, at every turn, to provide a well-rounded CertTESOL course, encouraging self-reflection and self-evaluation. They repeatedly mentioned the importance of future teacher development, and vocally promoted a context-based teaching methodology founded on learners' needs.

8.3: The Course Participants: A Profile

Twelve individuals, in addition to me, enrolled on the CertTESOL course. Although the group of six men and six women shared some similarities in educational background and career aspirations, the group was split evenly between those with and without teaching experience. This section will provide a brief overview of the CPs' educational background, motivations for enrolment, and career plans (see Table 8.1).

8.3.1 Educational and work background

Although all of the CPs were British citizens, their educational backgrounds were quite diverse, ranging from a B.A. in political studies to a PhD in English literature (see Table

8.1). Four of the CPs had prior teacher training (PGCE) in the areas of Maths, Japanese, Special Needs, and Literacy and Numeracy. Two of these, John and Laura, mentioned their teacher training several times, comparing their past training with the present CertTESOL course, although the other two, Rory and Sharon, made no reference to their past training and, in fact, seemed to dislike talking about it when prompted by me.

The group included three university lecturers, two Further Education (FE) teachers (one of whom had taught some ESL), and one CP with approximately twelve months experience teaching EFL. The non-teachers in the group had quite diverse work experience, including nursing experience and various odd jobs, mostly desk-related.

8.3.2 Motivations for enrolment and career plans

Except for one, all of the non-teachers (see Table 8.1) enrolled on the course for the purpose of achieving a short-term change of career, which they noted would last for 'a few years' before they settled down into a 'real job'. Matthew, age 23, Dave, age 23, and William, age 26, intended to teach in Asia short-term as a way to travel and see the world, and none had any idea of further career plans. Both Kate, age 39, and Amber, age 24, worked for SureStart, a health care provider, and were looking for additional work options since they suspected their jobs might be eliminated in the near future. Amber thought she might teach while travelling abroad for a few years, and Kate mentioned that she might move to Australia in a few years and teach ELT part-time. Finally, John, whose PGCE in Japanese had inspired him to teach English in Japan, was the only non-teacher and only man in the group who had hopes of making ELT into a career.

Donald and Carl, both university lecturers, enrolled on the course largely because of employer funding and had tentative plans to work with asylum seekers after retirement. One of the younger women, Rebecca, who had some ELT experience in Egypt (approximately 1 year), noted that she enrolled on the CertTESOL course to get better qualifications and pay. Two of the other teachers, Rory, age 50, and Sharon, age 41, were working for Colleges of Further Education (FE). Rory worked with dyslexic individuals and Sharon with adults struggling with literacy and numeracy. Both felt interested in working with asylum seekers and refugees and sought the CertTESOL as a way of getting additional training. However, neither had intentions of making ELT her primary career.

	CP	Age	Reason for enrolment	Educational Background	Past Career
Teachers	**Donald**	59	Close to retirement, wanting to work with asylum seekers	M.A. in Business	Life-long career as university lecturer in Business
	Carl	61	Close to retirement, exploring options, perhaps VSO.	PhD in English Literature,	Life-long career as university lecturer in English literature
	Laura	45	Moving to Zambia, wanted to gain knowledge about non-native speakers, won't be teaching ESL	PGCE in Maths, M.A. in Maths	Life-long career as university lecturer in Maths
	Rory	50	Wanting to give additional support to refugees and asylum seekers in her job in Further Education	PGCE in Special Needs (i.e. Dyslexia Support)	Life-long career as a teacher, mainly in FE
	Sharon	41	Working in FE, wanted some help with practical techniques	PGCE (Literacy and Numeracy)	Life-long career as a teacher, mainly in FE, some ESL teaching experience
	Rebecca	26	Wanted formal training so she could be paid more	B.A. in European Studies and French	Odd jobs, some experience in ESL in Cairo
Non-Teachers	**Kate**	39	Current job being eliminated, looking for options, possibly moving to Australia	Bach.CN	Health Services Nurse
	Amber	24	Short-term career in ESL abroad	B.Sc.	Health Development worker
	Dave	23	Short-term career in ESL, perhaps in Asia	Recent B.A. in English Lit.	Odd jobs, no firm career
	John	30	Planning to move to Japan, possible turn ESL into a career	B.A. in Biblical studies, PGCE in Japanese	Odd jobs, no firm career yet
	Matthew	23	Short-term career in ESL abroad	Recent B.A. in business	Desk job
	William	26	Short-term career in ESL abroad	B.A. in political studies	Odd Jobs

Table 8.1: Course participants' age, reason for enrolment, and educational background/work experience

Laura, age 45, the final member of the group, had no plans to teach English either at home or abroad but was planning to move to Zambia and work as a math teacher for approximately two years. She felt that the CertTESOL course might prepare her to work with non-native English speakers and understand their needs.

8.4: Participant Fees and Financial Structure of the Centre

Similar to other universities, AU is divided into different academic centers, which operate as cost centers, each contributing towards university overheads such as staff and teaching accommodation, learning centers, IT facilities, registry, and marketing. AU's TESOL Centre, although operating much like a service entity for the university and providing in-sessional EAP courses for students from all departments, pays these overheads just as other departments do. However, most of their funding comes from fees rather than from research funding or other sources of funding from the UK government (although UK students do receive some funding for students studying credit-bearing modules). This results in a considerable amount of pressure, more so than the other departments face, to recruit new students, both for teacher education and English courses. As the Head of the Centre put it, 'we get some government support [for the CertTESOL course] because they're credit bearing modules, but the bulk of the income is from the fees' (Interview, Sept 6, 2005).

Relying on recruitment from a wide spread of countries, AU's TESOL Centre has its own agent network in approximately thirty countries since the university typically markets itself in only approximately ten countries. However, marketing for teacher education is done almost exclusively in the UK mainly through advertising, word of mouth, one or two historic links, and, of course, the Trinity College London website. However, as the Head of the Centre put it, they're 'always quite dismissive about the Trinity website in that…it's not very transparent about finding your way to course providers' (Interview, Sept 6, 2005). This means that, by and large, CertTESOL CPs are almost exclusively from the UK and tend to be local due to the price of accommodation at other providers. In fact, not only does the AU TESOL Centre tend to limit its marketing for the CertTESOL course to the UK, but they also limit their advertising to their region of the UK (Head of TESOL Centre, Interview, Sept 6, 2005). This lends credence to the notion that potential CPs choose a particular CertTESOL provider not because of its reputation but because of its proximity to a CP's home and the course's overall cost. Unsurprisingly, then, the majority of CPs on the summer, 2005 course were from the same city as the course provider. The remainder were from surrounding towns with the exception of one CP, Rebecca, who only travelled the one-

hour by train to AU because she was unaware of any course providers in her own home city.

At the time I enrolled on the CertTESOL course, the cost for full-time completion was £1025 with an additional £105 for the Trinity College moderation fee plus the cost of books. However, the cost has since jumped to £1060 (not including the moderation fee or books) for Home/EU students and £2500 for non-EU students. According to the head of the centre,

> The background to this is that we receive UK government funding for the undergraduate modules that make up the Cert, which is why we can afford to run the courses at the normal 'home' fee rate. However, we are not allowed to subsidise non-home/EU students from government funds, and therefore international students have to pay full cost. (Course Tutor E-mail, May 9, 2005)

Certainly, this dramatic increase in fees for non-EU students translates to attracting fewer international students, although several course tutors commented on the decrease in international students on their CertTESOL course over the years due to the increase of providers around the world. Macpherson (2003) argues that the number of non-native speakers is likely to increase on short-term courses such as these due to global trends. The rising cost of non-EU student enrolment in the UK coupled with the increase in providers around the world indicates that it's likely that individuals, including non-native speakers, will, again, choose providers located closest to their home.

8.5: Overview of Course Components

CertTESOL and CELTA course components are quite similar, including input sessions (lectures), tutorial support, supervised lesson planning, observation of experienced ELT professionals, supervised teaching practice, teaching practice feedback, and peer observation. For the CertTESOL, this translates to a minimum of 130 hours of 'contact' with tutors and teachers, including 90 hours of input in the form of lectures, workshops, and guided private and group work. CPs also observe experienced teachers for a minimum of four hours and engage in at least six hours of supervised teaching practice, similar to the CELTA program (O'Donoghue, 2001).

In addition to these direct-contact course components, Trinity, unlike UCLES, specifies that course providers may require CPs to complete pre-course reading on such subjects as grammar, phonology, and methodology, although not all providers elect to do so (TCL, 2006a). Also unlike those on the CELTA course, CertTESOL participants

receive four hours of 'Unknown Natural Language' lessons, intended to expose pre-service teachers to the language learning experience.

Trinity's CertTESOL course is structured around five units which incorporate all the required learning objectives. These units include (TCL, 2006b: 18):

1. Teaching skills (including methodology, teaching practice, guided observation, materials evaluation, etc.)
2. Language awareness (grammar and phonology)
3. The learner profile (a simple linguistic profile and needs analysis for one learner of English)
4. The materials assignment (planning, producing, using, and evaluating classroom materials)
5. Unknown Language

Units 1 and 2 above are introduced during the distance learning component at AU and revisited during the direct contact phase of the course during which the remainder of the units are completed.

8.5.1 The distance learning component

AU's CertTESOL course, unlike most others, includes an extensive distance learning (DL) preparation phase during which the Trinity-required modules of 'Practical Phonetics', 'Language Awareness', and 'Introduction to the Classroom Teaching of ESOL' are covered. By including these in the DL, AU is then able to cover additional topics during the on-site phase of the course. By comparison, a timetable from another Trinity CertTESOL provider, found on-line, shows that a large percentage of on-course input sessions cover topics addressed in the pre-course phase of AU's course (see Appendix E).

A handout provided by AU, entitled 'TESOL Teacher Education Programmes', provides a rationale for the DL component present in AU's CertTESOL course, Postgrad Certificate, and MA in TESOL. The form states the rationale as being:

- **economic.** We recognize that few people these days can afford both the fees for teacher education courses and the loss of income that purely full-time attendance implies.
- **educational.** We feel strongly that some learning activities produce the greatest benefit when participants are members of a group whilst others are better conducted on one's own at one's own pace.
- **organisational.** It is a considerable advantage to us all as course tutors and participants to be able to feel confident at the beginning of the direct contact phase that everyone has at least covered a certain amount of ground.

On of the course tutors stated in an interview (July 21, 2005) that the addition of the DL component to the CertTESOL course was largely intended to allow time for more topics

during the four-week direct contact phase and for more self-managed time to complete assignments and lessons. She also noted that its purpose was to give CPs 'something to start with because you know, I think to start completely cold on these courses, thinking that you've got to go into the classroom very soon is a bit cruel' (Course Tutor, Interview, July 21, 2005).

CPs must complete the DL modules successfully before beginning the direct contact phase[11]. After a short study skills unit (unassessed), the DL pack includes three units: 'Introduction to the Classroom Teaching of ESOL', 'Language Awareness', and 'Practical Phonetics', each unit containing six modules. Each unit is accompanied by set texts, which each CP must buy. With the exception of the 'Practical Phonetics' units, which involves reading texts and completing six worksheets to be mailed in for assessment, the 'Language Awareness' and 'Classroom Teaching' modules consist of six modules starting with a series of self-assessed questions (SAQs) to prepare CPs to complete the worksheet at the end of each module that must be posted for assessment by a course tutor. The 'Classroom Teaching' unit is also accompanied by a video containing excerpts of classroom teaching, and the 'Phonetics' unit is accompanied by an audio cassette to assist in completing the worksheets.

In a letter to potential employers given to CPs upon completion of the course, AU notes that by the end of the DL component, trainees should be able to demonstrate:

- a basic knowledge of English phonology, grammar, and vocabulary
- an ability to apply this knowledge to the analysis of English discourse for basic syntactic, semantic and phonological features
- an ability to identify and use teaching resources
- an ability to identify commonly used teaching techniques
- an ability to apply this knowledge to sample classroom situations for evaluation purposes
- an ability to design a basic lesson plan ("To Whom It May Concern" letter)

The instruments used to gauge the extent to which each CP possesses this knowledge and these abilities are the assessment worksheets at the end of each DL module and the on-course take-home phonetics and phonology and language awareness exams.

Interestingly, one of the CPs, Sharon, told me that she had chosen AU specifically because of the DL (AR, July 4, 2005). However, as the course progressed, the CPs, including Sharon, revealed that they did not want to revisit the material in the DL at all during the direct contact phase of the course, although they were required to

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[11] CPs were required to submit DL assignments by post, which were marked by a course tutor and posted back. The pass or 'successful' mark was 40%. However, no marking grid was provided, and some CPs expressed frustration at the ambiguity of the marking system.

do so in instances like the language awareness and phonetics and phonology exams. The CPs expressed that they had completed the DL and wanted to put it behind them. In this way, the DL functioned like a disconnected prerequisite in their minds in that, to them, it had little relevance to what they were doing in the direct contact phase.

Hodkinson and Harvard offer insight into the often self-contained activities of teacher education, such as AU's DL modules described above. They argue that these function more 'as a rite of passage than part of a process of personal professional development' (Harvard & Hodkinson, 1994a: 9). The CPs' desire to put the DL modules 'behind them' reflects this view of teacher education as a rite of passage to be 'completed and forgotten'. Unfortunately, interviews with experienced ELT professionals (see Chapter 10.4.3) reveal that this perspective is shared by many TESOL Certificate holders, who see the function of the short-term course as merely an entrance ticket to the field rather than a means of achieving an acceptable level of professional knowledge. Nevertheless, AU should be commended for their inclusion of an obviously well-planned and well-intentioned DL module, which shows initiative to move beyond the bare minimum required by Trinity (see Davis, 1990).

8.5.2 Course input sessions

During the direct contact phase of the AU CertTESOL course, CPs attend a total of thirty input sessions in addition to sessions on how to complete course assignments (see Table 8.2). The amount and variety of course content were remarkable on this course, the extensive DL module making it possible for such a wide variety of input session topics, as indicated previously. The more theory-based sessions (i.e. Psycholinguistics, etc.) tended to be lecture-based, whereas the sessions on teaching techniques were more interactive, the tutors' demonstrating skills like formation of groups by having the CPs act out these different techniques as an ESL class might.

The AU timetable is, generally speaking, more rigorous than that of other providers as most days on the course involve mornings and afternoons devoted to input sessions with evenings (6:00 – 8:00 pm) devoted to teaching practice. According to one tutor at AU, other providers typically timetable teaching practice in the afternoons, often from 2:00 – 5:00 pm, leaving only the mornings open for input sessions. However, the wide variety of topics in the input sessions is not necessarily appropriate for the four-week course where individuals are being confronted with most, if not all, of the course

content for the first time in a very short period of time. Topics like 'Psycholinguistics', 'Contrastive Analysis', and 'Varieties of English' may constitute too much too soon, and as Chapter 9 explores, were met with some confusion and frustration on the part of the CPs at AU. In some instances, the CPs struggled to make sense or see the application of such content to the classroom and thus viewed the more theoretically-based input sessions less positively. Ironically, then, the inclusion of such a wide variety of topics, no doubt attempted with the best intentions, contributed to a divide between the practice teaching, which was highly favored by the CPs, and some of the input sessions, which the CPs disliked and were repeatedly absent from.

1. Aids and Materials	2. TP Preparation: Finding the materials
3. Teaching techniques – pair and group work	4. Classroom Language and Management
5. Evaluating Coursebooks	6. Techniques for Teaching Grammar
7. Developing Speaking Skills	8. Voice Production
9. Developing Reading Skills	10. Contrastive Analysis
11. Techniques for Teaching Pronunciation Skills	12. Teaching Technique: Types of Feedback
13. Developing Listening Skills	14. Cultural Awareness
15. Alternative Models for Lesson Planning	16. Drama Techniques and Role Play
17. Teaching Vocabulary	18. Using Dictionaries
19. Using games in ESOL	20. Careers in TESOL
21. The Internet in TESOL	22. Techniques for Using the Video
23. An Overview of EFL Exams	24. Testing and Evaluation
25. Teaching Large Monolingual Classes	26. ESOL Curriculum
27. Psycholinguistics	28. Teaching Young Learners
29. Project Work in TESOL	30. Varieties of English

Table 8.2: AU's CertTESOL course input sessions

8.5.3 Course Assignments

Both UCLES and Trinity require an arguably rigorous set of course assignments for the Certificate course. In addition to the teaching practice assignment, CELTA CPs must complete four written assignments, not exceeding 3,000 words altogether, containing discussion of an aspect of the English language system, reflection on classroom teaching, reflection on adult learners and learning contexts, and an analysis of learning/teaching materials. Trinity CertTESOL CPs complete assignments of a fairly different nature, although with the same end goal in mind: evidence of knowledge of the

English language system, reflection on classroom teaching, etc. Trinity's CertTESOL assignments include:

- two language awareness (grammar and phonology) exams
- a learner profile (a simple linguistic profile and needs analysis for one learner of English)
- a materials assignment (planning, producing, using, and evaluating classroom materials)
- two structured journals with explicit prompts: the unknown language journal (documenting the experience of learning a new language) and the teaching practice journal (see 9.3).

8.5.4 Course Assessment

Course assessment is often the primary area of concern among teacher trainees for the obvious reason that it will determine whether or not a trainee will receive the qualification s/he is after. However, as Wallace (1991) points out, assessment is more than just a gateway to certification and should also act as an integrating device, designed to allow teacher trainees to make connections between course components, thus strengthening the overall coherence of the course. Wallace also notes that because assessment essentially outlines the conditions trainees must meet in order to successfully gain a teaching qualification, it must be carefully constructed in a manner consistent with the aims and objectives of the course rather than constructed simply to fill the empty space assessment often occupies. Roberts goes further, arguing that assessment, in effect, 'protects pupils/paying clients, parents and employers from incompetent teachers' (Roberts, 1998: 162). Turner et al. (1982) agreed, noting that assessment is the means by which teacher education programs carry out 'a professional responsibility to ensure that only fit, proper, and competent teachers enter the profession' (Turner et al., 1982: 201; see also van Aswegen & Dreyer, 2004).

Unsurprisingly, the Practicum component and its related assignments (TP Journal, etc.) in both the CELTA and the CertTESOL courses are the *primary* means of assessment, CertTESOL giving it a typical weighting of 57% of the overall mark (TCL, 2006b: 34). Table 8.3, taken from a recent conference handout (Pugsley, 2006) outlining City College Manchester's CertTESOL weighting system, serves as an example of how each assignment is weighed in terms of the overall mark.

The heavy weighting of the teaching practice and its related components is further illustrated by Trinity's requirement that a CP's overall grade not be higher than that awarded for the teaching practice unit (TCL, 2006b). However, both UCLES and Trinity, perhaps acting with an awareness of the difficulty of assessing classroom

performance teaching, have adopted the use of continuous and varied assessment techniques that are an attempt to move away from a prescriptive style of assessing teacher behavior (Roberts, 1998). The types of assignments used to provide this continuous and varied assessment in both the CELTA and CertTESOL courses, as well as the assessment of the teaching practice itself, are summarized in the following subsections.

Unit	Percentage	
1. Teaching Practice	50	
Coursebook Evaluation	2.5	
TP Journal	7.5	
Guided Observation Journal	5	
Teaching Skills		65
2. Language Awareness		16.25
3. Learner Profile		11.25
4. Materials Assignment		Pass or Refer
5. Unknown Language		7.5
Total		**100**

Table 8.3: City College Manchester's CertTESOL assessment weighting

8.5.4.1 CELTA and CertTESOL assessment summarized

In an effort to avoid reliance on one particular type of assessment such as observation of teaching practice, many teacher educators employ more holistic forms of assessment, including the use of a portfolio containing reflective assignments related to the teaching practice. Both CELTA and CertTESOL courses use assignments, such as the teaching practice journal, feedback sessions with the observing tutor, and reflective essays, to culminate in a portfolio of materials that tutors can review and assess.

In both CELTA and CertTESOL, there are no final exams. In the CELTA course, participants are assessed by course tutors as the program progresses and, ultimately, by an external moderator appointed by UCLES. The main components of assessment are twofold. First, as indicated previously, participants are required to complete a minimum of six hours of assessed practice teaching in classrooms with two different proficiency levels. Second, each participant must complete writing assignments on adult learning, the language system of English, language skills, and classroom teaching. In order to receive the CELTA, individuals must receive a grade of Pass, Pass A, or Pass B in both components.

The CertTESOL is a pass/fail course with no distinction level. The reason for this is not made clear on the website, in the course validation guidelines (TCL, 2004b)

or the course summary (TCL, 2006a). However, one course tutor at AU provided the rationale, noting that because the marking systems are not totally standardized among CertTESOL providers, Trinity would be uncomfortable with using marks provided by providers as the basis for distinction levels (Course Tutor, E-mail, July 4, 2006). Instead, Trinity relies on course moderators and providers to make a determination of pass or fail.

CertTESOL CPs' teaching practice and course assignments are assessed by the course tutors as they are in CELTA, although again, only a pass/fail mark is ultimately given to CertTESOL CPs. At AU, each written assignment (Teaching Practice Journal, Profile Assignment, Materials Assignment, Unknown Language Journal) is measured against a grid describing the characteristics of assignments at each level (0 – 70%+) (see Appendix F). While CPs are advised that they may return to retrieve their coursework, all course assignments must be kept in-house for several months for eventual inspection by a course moderator, and perhaps because of this lapse of time, most CPs do not collect them.

A fundamental component of the CertTESOL's assessment is the moderation interview. At the end of the course, a Trinity appointed moderator interviews each CP individually to discuss his/her materials assignment and then convenes a group discussion, wherein several CPs answer questions regarding their general impressions of the course. One assignment per candidate is assessed by the moderator and evaluated for completeness. Again, Trinity CertTESOL is not graded like CELTA (pass, pass 'B,' etc.), although individual providers may choose to devise their own means of differentiating stronger candidates from weaker candidates. However, the minimum requirement, as stipulated by Trinity, is that all candidates attend all training sessions and complete all assignments, projects, and tests to the standard set by the course provider (TCL, 2006b). During his/her visit, the moderator discusses each participant's work with the course provider and then recommends the successful candidates to the head of the Trinity CertTESOL program, who awards the Certificates.

8.5.4.2 Assessment of practice teaching

As indicated previously, the Practicum is the most heavily weighted component in both the CELTA and CertTESOL courses. This is typical of teacher education courses. Despite ongoing debate regarding the problematic nature of assessment of teaching practice, 'Direct observation is still the most common form of assessment in ITE

courses' (Roberts, 1998: 166). Beyond just problems associated with defining good teaching and establishing a set of criteria against which a teacher trainee's teaching practice can be measured (Braskamp, 1980), there are, of course, the issues of observer inconsistency, the selective nature of observation, and observer bias, among many other areas of concern (see Hook, 1981; Peterson, 1995; Roberts, 1998). Roberts highlights some fundamental problems with direct observation, noting, 'Reliance on observed lessons for assessment provides a push towards prescription and the provision of display lessons' (Roberts, 1998: 206).

Research into assessment of classroom teaching (see Thaine, 2004) shows that assessment criteria are often interpreted quite differently by different observers. Thaine argues that this inconsistency 'signals a need to pin down different aspects of the construct of "teaching ability" in such a way that observers can agree that a variety of teaching behaviors represent the construct' (Thaine, 2004: 338). In an effort to maintain some consistency, teacher educators often use proformas to guide their observation. These often take the form of either a checklist of observable behaviors or a more open-ended form with places to note positive and negative teaching points.

City College Manchester's CertTESOL assessment form is an example of a 'checklist' proforma, where a list of observable behaviors is followed by a box to mark either 'yes' or 'no' and an optional notes box. The form includes criteria such as:

- At least two outcomes are stated [in the lesson plan].
- It is indicated that all four skills are to be practiced.
- Most of the time most of the students know what they are supposed to be doing.
- At times during the lesson students' progress is assessed.
- The seating arrangement is appropriately adapted for individual, pair, and group work as the lesson progresses.
- Generally, pronunciation and grammar mistakes are tactfully corrected, but the flow of the lesson is maintained (Pugsley, 2006).

The 'checklist' approach to assessing teaching practice, however, comes with a host of problems (see Roberts, 1998: 171-172; Thaine, 2004), including:

- determination of which and how many points to include
- the effect of personal bias
- the 'halo' effect, i.e. student-teachers who start well continue to be rated well
- the overtly-detailed and potentially trival nature of low-inference and hence reliable categories, i.e. they may not deal with higher-order concepts, such as attainment of teaching goals, or appropriacy of materials
- the high-inference, global, and interpretive nature of categories such as 'rapport'
- the more apparent than real objectivity implied by a rating scale
- a potential lack of opportunity for a trainee to exhibit all of the 'required' behaviors, based on the teaching context
- lack of opportunity to show potential.

The second common type of proforma used to provide some standardization of TP observation contains more open-ended comment boxes with spaces for observer comments. At AU, observers completed a form containing spaces for three positive items or aspects of the lesson as well as three aspects or components that 'could do with some further thought' (AU Handout, 2005). During my time at AU, no additional rubric or guide was used to determine whether or not a CP passed the teaching practice component. Interviews and e-mails with several of the course tutors confirmed this fact, although a recent e-mail from the CertTESOL course leader indicates that a teaching practice observation rubric is now in use.

Obvious problems emerge as a result of more open-ended observation guides. As Roberts writes, 'Unstructured observation leaves so much room for personal bias that focused and structured methods are preferable, even though they will delimit the scope of observation' (Roberts, 1998: 169). As in the case of the TP observation at AU, attempts at moving away from prescriptive assessment criteria like the checklist proforma often result in observers' judging the success of a particular lesson based on ambiguous notions of 'teaching potential' or a particular CP's 'natural teaching ability' that are difficult to quantify. One course tutor's remarks demonstrate this.

> ...there's one person on this course who I wouldn't have thought for a minute was going to be like that, and it's somebody with absolutely no teaching or training background whatsoever and absolutely, to my mind anyway, just illuminates the classroom. You know, with no matter what gaps there might be in skills or strategies, this is a person who just illuminates the classroom. And will always be able to teach, and you can't teach that. (Course Tutor, Interview, July 21, 2006)

This notion of 'natural teaching talent' is one recognized by many teacher educators but not definitively outlined in the literature. How indeed does one measure 'potential' or 'natural teaching ability'? And what bearing should such a quality have in terms of assessment? Another of AU's course tutors offered some explanation, seeming to argue that this potential has significant bearing.

> ...what are we expecting in someone who in four weeks, walks in having never taught, and walks out, so you're looking at potential. You know, you're not looking, there's no such thing as a model lesson, and again, we try and build that awareness in by having delayed feedback by having the journal, so that it's what people learn from the lessons that they've taught that are key, you know, you can't, not walking on and saying, a good teacher should have this, this, this, this, and this should happen. We don't have that sort of expectation. (Course Tutor, Interview, July 6, 2006)

The same course tutor went on to note that despite the heavy percentage of assessment given to the teaching practice, it is not the focal point. Rather, the feedback sessions and

the reflective journal are used to assess potential more than observation of the teaching practice, which, she argued, could never be 'mechanical and standardized'. So then, a CPs' 'potential', evidenced by comments in the feedback session and in the TP Journal are considered to be of primary importance.

In the space of only four weeks, AU's assessment model seems quite realistic in terms of teaching practice. Keeping in mind that the idea of a 'master teacher' is moot (see Stones & Morris, 1972a, 1972b), coupled with an awareness of the weaknesses of direct observation, using a CP's ability to reflect on a lesson's strengths and weaknesses seems a valid means of assessing teaching potential After all, it can hardly be argued that one could become an accomplished teacher in only four weeks. However, this heavy reliance on reflective abilities was problematic as well, given that many of the CPs engaged in 'performance behavior' both during the Practicum and in the feedback sessions and course assignments. On occasion, the CPs said and wrote what they believed the course tutors wanted to hear, rather than what they truly believed (see Chapter 10.3). This strategic behavior as well as other problems related to Trinity's CertTESOL assessment in general will be discussed in the following subsection.

8.5.4.3 AU's CertTESOL assessment: A guaranteed pass?

AU's CertTESOL course was consistent with Trinity's assessment guidelines. Each CP's assignments were marked by the course tutors in a timely fashion, and all teaching practice was observed and critiqued by the course tutors, who followed each teaching slot with a feedback session. The moderator conducted both individual and group interviews during the last week. In this way, assessment was continuous, varied, and in harmony with published Trinity guidelines. However, despite this consistency, the reality of the assessment criteria was marked by three main problem areas: the existence of an almost guaranteed pass, the tendency of CPs to behave strategically to please the tutors, and the relaxed attendance requirements.

One of the CPs mentioned during the second week of the course that a tutor had told her that the only way to fail a TP lesson was to fail to show up or fail to to turn in a lesson plan (FN, July 11, 2005). An interview with one of AU's course tutors seemed to confirm this fact:

> ...it's quite hard to fail a lesson really, but um, if objectives aren't met at all, if the lesson isn't planned adequately, if um classroom management is totally inadequate, and also if the trainee is unaware afterwards of what's happened. (Course Tutor. July 21. 2005)

When asked how often CPs failed lessons on the CertTESOL course, this same tutor said she could only think of one or two occasions in the last fourteen years. In her defense, several advocates of both CELTA and the CertTESOL have pointed out that entrance requirements and a pre-course interview are designed to eliminate individuals who are unlikely to pass or who obviously don't possess necessary language teacher qualities (Roberts, 1998; Pugsley, 2006). This may help explain the high passing rate of both the CELTA and the CertTESOL[12]. However, the entrance requirements for both courses are not rigorous, and, in my opinion, cannot be used to guarantee a high standard. They seem, in fact, more consistent with the requirements of an individual entering a trade or craft training course (like plumbing or carpentry) rather than those in keeping with an academic profession like teaching, an observation noted by others in the literature (Davis, 1990; Johnston, 1997). Of course, given the problematic nature of using observation of teaching practice for assessment purposes as well as the course tutors' comments stating that the actual teaching practice was not a primary means of assessment, an almost guaranteed pass of the teaching practice component of the course is not surprising. However, this was not the only course element that seemed to point to an 'easy pass'.

Other elements of the course also suggested that failing was difficult, as in the case of the materials assignment where a practice moderation interview ensured that each CP passed this component of the course, regardless of whether or not the CP had a genuine ability to analyze classroom materials. As one of the tutors noted, if an individual really didn't seem to have a grasp of what was needed to complete this particular assignment, 'that's when we try to tell you almost word for word what you've got to say' (Course Tutor, Interview, July 21, 2005).

In addition to what seemed an 'easy pass', a perhaps more serious issue of strategic behavior on the part of the CPs pointed to another flaw in the CertTESOL course's assessment, one that plagues initial teacher education in general. Although the TP Journal assignment will be discussed in more detail in a subsequent section (see Chapter 9.3.3), this assignment in particular served as striking evidence of the CPs' desire to please the tutors in order to pass the course. Comments from the CPs in conversations between input sessions revealed that their true feelings about the course

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[12] Recent correspondence with Trinity College London reveals that 1% of CertTESOL course participants failed the course in the previous two years.

and about their own teaching were markedly different from what they recorded in their TP Journal. Many of the CPs joked about finding the perfect formula for completing a journal entry and telling the tutors what they wanted to hear. Their comments also revealed that many of them were engaging in 'display lessons', where they modified their behavior to please a particular tutor rather than out of recognition that their 'normal' teaching behavior was perhaps inappropriate or misguided. One CP (Rebecca) told me that she had voiced agreement with her observing tutor's comments during the feedback session (wherein the observing tutor criticized her lesson on certain points) but that in reality, she did not agree at all and thought her lesson had been largely flawless.

Finally, AU's CertTESOL assessment was problematic in the area of enforced attendance. The continued absence of the CPs from the input sessions was largely overlooked, and seemed to have no bearing on each CP's final grade. Certainly, this may have been an anomaly, and perhaps attendance is normally strictly enforced as conversations with other course providers seem to indicate. However, the relaxed attendance requirements only served to emphasize that marks of 'fail' were rarely awarded.

8.5.4.4 Conclusions about assessment

Roberts (1998: 209) offers a helpful discussion of some of the particular difficulties of assessing short-term TESOL Certificate candidates, seen in Table 8.4 below.

1.	The enormous pressure on tutors to pass candidates, and also provide a grade that would improve employment opportunities
2.	The short time interval between input and assessment
3.	Candidates who were clearly improving but did not reach a passing standard after four weeks
4.	Candidates who began well but showed no change over the four weeks: could it be assumed that they would fail to develop afterwards?
5.	Candidates who met practical criteria, but showed little evidence of critical thinking about learners or teaching
6.	Candidates who did not teach very effectively but showed good awareness of what they were doing and how it should be improved
7.	The difficulty of defending grade distinctions (in the case of CELTA)

Table 8.4: Difficulties with assessing short-term Certificate candidates (Roberts 1998: 209)

Although Roberts writes these in the context of a discussion about CELTA, these assessment difficulties are relevant to the CertTESOL course as well. The Head of Trinity's CertTESOL program recently echoed the existence of pressure on course providers to pass all CPs, noting that the short duration of the course typically increases

CPs' expectations to pass and that a mark of 'fail' can often be difficult to defend (Pugsley, 2006). This problem and those raised by Roberts were certainly apparent in AU's CertTESOL course, where tutors expressed awareness of the pressure to pass all CPs and where many of the other CPs' performance seemed similar to that described in points 3-6 in the above table.

In light of these difficulties, it seems that both CELTA and CertTESOL course providers have been forced to assess CPs based on a 'display of approved behaviors' either in the Practicum or in the feedback and reflection afterwards. This decision seems to have been born out of necessity and expedience, primarily. Roberts (1998: 208) provides a helpful explanation for this, pointing out that although most short-term TESOL Certificate tutors would probably reject the notion that assessment was based merely on this display, courses may be prescriptive 'in effect if not in intent' as they seemed to be at AU. Providing support to this, Dewey aptly notes:

> At all events, no greater travesty of real intellectual criticism can be given than to set a student teaching a brief number of lessons, have him under inspection in practically all the time of every lesson, and then criticize him almost, if not quite at the very end of each lesson, upon the particular way in which that particular lesson has been taught, pointing out elements of failure and success. Such methods of criticism may be adapted to giving a training-teacher command of some of the knacks and tools of the trade, but are not calculated to develop a thoughtful and independent teacher (Dewey, 1904: 28).

The short-term Certificate course can hardly avoid the problems of assessment outlined in previous sections. Given such a short time span to observe reflection and development in student teachers, some of whom may show little to no progress in one month, assessment can hardly be very reliable. This alone has serious implications for the short course, which will be discussed further in the final chapter (Chapter 11).

8.6: Published and Implicit Course Objectives

All teacher education courses embody a philosophy of teaching that connects overall course objectives to training methods and course content (see Pennington, 1990; Trappes-Lomax & McGrath, 1999). The earlier discussion of models of teacher education (see Chapter 2.2) illustrates some of the more common realizations of teacher education philosophies. While certainly most teacher education courses rely on their own amalgamation of these and other philosophies of teaching, at least some tend to fall more solidly in one category or another.

Examination of course objectives reveals a great deal about a course provider's philosophy of teacher education, casting light on what it values most and the types of teachers it wishes to create. This section will include such an examination, looking first at what the published course objectives reveal about the underlying philosophy of teacher education at one particular CertTESOL provider and at short-term TESOL Certificate providers in general. This section will also discuss the implicit course objectives that surfaced during the data collection process.

8.6.1 Published Objectives

Trinity's CertTESOL course provider validation requirements (TCL, 2006b) outline specifically what trainees must accomplish and exhibit in order to complete the CertTESOL successfully. According to AU's *CertTESOL Trainee Handbook*, 'The overall aim of the program is to provide an initial course in the practice of Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (AU Handbook, 2005: 4), but general instructional objectives more specifically include:

1. Refer to basic principles underlying ESOL learning and teaching, informed by current knowledge in TESOL, and use this knowledge in their teaching.
2. Describe basic features of the phonology, vocabulary and syntax of modern communicative English and use this knowledge in their teaching.
3. Prepare effective lesson plans according to the needs of the learners they are teaching.
4. Teach a reasonably extensive range of lesson types.
5. Use effectively a variety of teaching aids and materials.
6. Produce effective visual aids and materials.
7. Monitor their own effectiveness as teachers of ESOL and use this as a basis for undertaking further autonomous post-course development.
8. Co-operate and collaborate effectively with other teachers in specific teaching situations.
9. Achieve all the above within the framework of a modern methodological approach. (AU Handbook, 2005: 4)

These are largely consistent with Trinity's objectives, which also include 'Awareness of the learning needs of individuals or groups of learners, and of the motivation of learners in a variety of circumstances and environments', 'Ability to establish rapport, create and maintain learners' interest', and 'Awareness of the means of identifying a TESOL post after training...' (TCL, 2006a: 7). AU's course objectives focus heavily on the practice teaching aspect of the course, with five out of nine objectives being accomplished solely in the practice teaching component.

Specific to the Practicum component, Trinity's *CertTESOL Validation Requirements* (2006b: 19) provide an account of the skills a trainee must demonstrate in order to pass the teaching practice (see Table 8.5). Cerrtainly, these objectives had been

well-considered by the course tutors at AU, and it seemed that if each trainee completed each assignment and completed the teaching practice 'successfully', the course objectives would be met. That said, the objectives also reveal a focus on a particular philosophy about teaching and teacher education.

8.6.1.1 Performance-based teacher education philosophy

Trinity's and AU's published objectives operate under several assumptions about teaching, reflecting at least in part a performance-based view of teaching. As discussed previously (see Chapter 2.3), the 1970's saw a rapid rise in performance or competency based teacher education or PBTE, involving a microanalysis of teaching which views teaching in terms of its directly observable characteristics (Shulman, 1986a; Richards & Nunan, 1990). The assumption behind this philosophy is that there is a direct and one-way relationship between teacher behavior and student actions or student learning. Although this view of teaching has declined in favor of a more holistic view of teaching that examines the whole context of teaching and learning, PBTE continues to find its way into teacher education courses.

A close examination of the CertTESOL course objectives indicates a focus on general teaching principles and, more specifically, a focus on overt teacher behaviors or performance, an indication of a performance-based teacher education philosophy. Freeman (1989) provides a helpful model for examination of course objectives, breaking down language teaching into four constituents: knowledge, skills, attitude, and awareness (see p. 23). Freeman notes that a transmission approach (like PBTE) to teacher education focuses almost exclusively on the first two constituents, viewing language teaching as primarily a matter of knowledge and skills. Table 8.5 compares AU's published course objectives with Freeman's four-pronged model, revealing a heavy focus on knowledge and skills. This focus is not surprising given the short-term course's origin as a solution to the heavily theory-based Postgraduate Certificate of Education (PGCE) course of the early 1960's in the UK (Borg, 2005). That said, it can be argued that this transmission approach to teacher education does not support teacher autonomy, the ability to think critically about teaching and teaching contexts (Harvard & Hodkinson, 1994).

An examination of Trinity's published objectives for the Practicum component specifically (see Table 8.6) reveals that the CertTESOL course relies on deeply-held assumptions about what constitutes good language teaching, for example that the use of

authentic and self-generated material will stimulate learning, and that acquisition of a set of skills will create a good teacher. Broudy, commenting on this assumption, notes,

> Controversy arises at the point where teaching as the unified act of a person exercising a skill is equated with the overt behaviors to which it has been reduced. Are judgment, organization or response, choice of teaching strategies, and other teaching decisions reducible to overt performances? (Broudy, 1984: 4)

AU's Course Objectives (consistent with Trinity College)	Constituent of Language Teaching (Freeman, 1989)	Course Assignments Used to Meet Objectives
1. Refer to basic principles underlying ESOL learning and teaching, informed by current knowledge in TESOL, and use this knowledge in their teaching.	Knowledge	Teaching Practice and Profile of a Language Learning
2. Describe basic features of the phonology, vocabulary and syntax of modern communicative English and use this knowledge in their teaching.	Knowledge	Teaching Practice and Exams
3. Prepare effective lesson plans according to the needs of the learners they are teaching.	Skill	Teaching Practice
4. Teach a reasonably extensive range of lesson types.	Skill	Teaching Practice
5. Use effectively a variety of teaching aids and materials.	Skill	Teaching Practice and Materials Assignment
6. Produce effective visual aids and materials.	Skill	Teaching Practice and Materials Assignment
7. Monitor their own effectiveness as teachers of ESOL and use this as a basis for undertaking further autonomous post-course development.	Attitude	Teaching Practice Journal
8. Co-operate and collaborate effectively with other teachers in specific teaching situations.	Skill	Team-Teaching
9. Achieve all the above within the framework of a modern methodological approach (AU Handbook: 4).	Knowledge	??

Table 8.5: AU's course objectives compared with Freeman's (1989) 'Model of Language Teaching'

Again using Freeman's (1989) model of the components of language teaching, the list of demonstrated skills also shows a focus on knowledge and observable skills with only limited objectives related to awareness and attitude (see Table 8.6).

Kennedy's (1993) research examined the extent to which trainers and trainees shared the same perceptions of what are important areas of concern in teaching practice. She found that trainees quickly pick up on a teacher preparation course's philosophy about teacher education transmitted via course content and structure. Her study is particularly

applicable here as she found that course objectives surrounding creation of lesson plans and providing interesting and stimulating materials, both of which are included in CertTESOL course objectives, often lead trainees to worry more about lesson format than lesson content. This tends to happen despite the intention of the trainers to instill in trainees the significance of lesson content.

Demonstrated Skills for Teaching Practice Component (Trinity College London, 2004b: 19)	Constituent of Language Teaching (Freeman, 1989)
1. identification of the needs of different types of learners in monolingual and multilingual groups	Knowledge
2. preparation of appropriate aims for a lesson or lessons and means of achieving them	Skill
3. identification and development of the learning styles and motivation of learners, establishing and maintaining rapport	Knowledge
4. organisation and management of the classroom, including whole-class activity, pair, group and individual work	Skill
5. the ability to understand and adopt different teaching methods and styles for different learner groups and individuals, with respect to the principles of differentiated learning	Skill
6. management of learners' behaviour to encourage confidence, creativity and cooperation with other learners	Skill
7. understanding and developing the role of learners in contributing to their own learning programme through self-directed study and self-evaluation	Knowledge/ Skill
8. the ability to balance the requirements of accuracy and fluency as aims in teaching, including treatment of errors	Skill
9. the ability to balance teacher-learner and learner-learner participation and to give clear instructions	Skill
10. the ability to adapt and use print materials effectively in whole or in part; use of teachers' and students' books to complement main course book	Skill
11. use of authentic and self-generated materials as aids to learning	Skill
12. use of teaching aids such as board, overhead projector, and audio equipment, and awareness of video and ICT (information and communication technology) to achieve learning aims	Skill
13. devising and playing simple language games to achieve learning aims	Skill

Table 8.6: AU's required demonstrated skills compared with Freeman's (1989) 'Model of Language Teaching'

Arguably, the creation of course objectives is difficult, and no doubt specificity in objectives can promote consistency across the many Trinity course providers around the world. That said, Trinity's CertTESOL objectives include assumptions that nevertheless may not suit all situations and all teachers and promote a transmission approach to teacher education insofar as they advocate the acquisition of set teaching skills and abilities.

8.6.2 Implicit course objectives

Richards (1998) points out that many teacher education courses adopt an eclectic philosophy of teacher education, meaning that they reflect different assumptions or more than one assumption at a time. AU's CertTESOL course's implementation was quite consistent with its published objectives. In addition, certain themes emerged quickly during data collection and analysis that pointed to an additional set of objectives with its own set of assumptions. These include instilling trainee confidence, providing a 'starter pack' of TESOL skills, and meeting market demand.

8.6.2.1 Confidence: The ultimate goal

Many writers and researchers have pointed out the importance of confidence in novice teachers. Worthy (2005) notes that because new teachers are most often in 'survival mode', regularly questioning their own competence, teacher educators must provide encouragement and support that will give them the confidence they require to move to the next stage of teaching ability (see also McNeely & Mertz, 1990; Lucas & Robinson, 2003; Brady & Bowd, 2005). However, as Warford and Reeves (2003) point out, misplaced optimism can be just as detrimental as lack of confidence, and confidence rooted in a weak foundation often bows to the pressures of a novice teacher's first teaching situation.

The theme of confidence was prevalent during the CertTESOL course at AU, although, as subsequent paragraphs will explore, such confidence seemed linked to understanding of procedural skills rather than subject knowledge. During the course, I interviewed four course tutors, all of whom delivered one or more input sessions during the CertTESOL course. I asked them to identify what they what they saw as being the main objective of the CertTESOL course. Table 8.7 below shows the tutors' responses, the majority of which reveal an implicit objective of the short-term course: instilling confidence in the trainee.

Examination of the tutor-completed Practicum feedback forms reinforces this aim and lends insight into the foundation upon which this confidence was placed. Each feedback form listed first three positive characteristics of the CPs' teaching practice followed by three more critical points, which were often cloaked in cautious language, often in the form of a question rather than a statement. For example, one tutor commented, 'In retrospect, did activity 1 help them with activity 3 and 4?...Could your

input have been exploited more?' One of the course tutors explained the philosophy behind this feedback technique,

> I think if you have a bad experience early on, it can knock your confidence, and it's going to make it so much harder to achieve anything later on in the course. I think that the first teaching experience needs to be quite positive if you can make it that way. (Course Tutor, Interview, July 21, 2005)

Course Leader and leader of Postgrad. Diploma	'Essentially, what we'd like them to leave with would be the confidence to stand up in any setting that they might, that they might find themselves in…I think so long as people feel happy about being in front of a class and handling language then we've done all we can reasonable achieve at this stage because it's an entry qualification'. (Course Tutor, Interview, July 6, 2005)
P.G. Diploma Distance Learning Tutor and Co-ordinator	'having gone through the course that we run, you know, and be quite confident that they're quite well equipped for that [first job]…I would say that they're well equipped for their first step, finding their feet, getting to know materials…' (Course Tutor, Interview, July 6, 2005)
The Certificate Distance Learning Tutor	'I would like to think that everybody was going to be able to go away and get a nice, fulfilling job… It's an initial teacher training course, and it should put- everyone who passes it should be in a position to be able to go and take a teaching job with some support, you know, we assume that they're going- they don't always but we assume they're going to get some support with the new employer – and should be able to go into the classroom with some confidence'. (Course Tutor, Interview, July 21, 2005)
Joint Course Leader in the MA TESOL	'She mentioned several times that she felt the goal for the course participants of the Certificate is to be come a reflective practitioner, one who is able to evaluate their own teaching'. (FN, July 27, 2005)

Table 8.7: Course tutors' responses to the question, 'What is the main objective of this course?'

The tutors' observation forms also indicate that tutors praised confidence and often suggested that the tutors described CPs as 'confident' as a *means* of instilling a feeling of confidence. After William's first lesson, for example, before and after which he told me that he was petrified and that he was too nervous to let me observe, the tutor commented that William appeared confident. In this case, the statement seemed intended as a tool to build confidence rather than to reflect reality.

The structure of the TP Journal also seemed intended to build confidence in the trainees. CPs were asked to comment on what they were most and least confident about for each lesson, and this theme of confidence then appeared in other, unprompted occasions. Almost all of the CPs' TP journals mentioned an increase in confidence as one of the most important developments the CPs underwent. Some of the comments include:

- 'I have good rapport and I think good people skills in general. If I can keep this in mind, it might give me confidence…' (William, TP Journal, 2LE)

- '…by undertaking this course, I have…gained confidence in my ability…' (Kate, TP Journal, 7LE)
- 'My confidence has increased a lot…I had never taught a class and had very little experience of speaking to large groups of people. I now feel confident to enter a classroom and enthusiastically present a lesson'. (Dave, TP Journal, 7LE)
- 'Most important I think is my growth in confidence in being before a large group of students and having the ability to actually teach them something. I honestly wasn't sure that I would be able to do this and it caused me considerable anxiety'. (John, TP Journal, 7LE)

At several intervals after the course, I followed-up with the CPs regarding their post-course teaching experience and reflections. Asked what areas of ELT they felt confident in, the majority replied that while they felt quite confident in skills like classroom management, lesson format, and general teaching skills, they had little confidence in their language knowledge (Kate, Donald, John, Amber, Rory, FQ; Personal E-mails). John noted, 'I feel confident about classroom management. Certain aspects of grammar I still feel unconfident about'. Amber described language awareness as her 'weak spot'. Rory noted, 'I feel confident about planning a lesson and less confident about teaching some of the grammar'.

Dave and Carl were exceptions, both noting that they did not feel 'unconfident' in any area and that their knowledge of the English language was solid. That said, Carl said he sometimes struggled with applying his language knowledge to the classroom. These deviant cases are best explained by the fact that both Carl and Dave's fields were English literature, which exposed them to critical analysis of written English. Evidence of this is Carl's Grammar Presentation assignment, which consisted of a lengthy analysis of the present perfect form, supported by numerous examples from literature. Further evidence is found in Dave's comment early in the course that he found the language awareness modules fairly easy, noting 'ok, I mean, cause I did my English degree, a lot of it, you know, the English language, that helped' (Dave, AR, July 3, 2005). Though the other CPs had all attained at least an undergraduate level degree, Carl and Dave's additional and constant exposure to and analysis of written language perhaps gave them an advantage that the other CPs did not have.

William was also an exception, noting that the course 'knocked my confidence a great deal if you really want to know…never quite felt like I was up to it in some ways, but I think that's down to breezing over the actual content and a general winging my way through as best as possible' (William, E-mail, March 22, 2006). William not only

lacked confidence in explicit language knowledge, like most of the other CPs, but also in general teaching skills.

In summary, the data indicates some success in instilling confidence. Certainly, confidence is important to novice teachers, who often 'find it almost impossible to detach themselves from the crisis of the moment' (Kennedy, 1993: 162) and lack the presence of mind to make informed decisions in the high-pressure environment of early teaching practice. For this reason, confidence building should be a goal of teacher education courses as it was at AU. However, confidence rooted primarily in one's experience of and increasing comfort with standing in front of a group of learners, while necessary, is insufficient for preparing teachers for the realities of the classroom, where explicit language awareness is often demanded by the learners.

8.6.2.2 'A basic starter pack': Pre-service TESOL teacher education as a course in survival

The previous discussion leads naturally into discussion of another underlying aim: teaching survival skills. Because confidence can be seen as a coping mechanism, these two themes are inextricably linked. However, as this aim of TESOL Certificate courses seems to be one of the most commonly noted in the field, some separate discussion of it as a theme is justified.

In her article justifying short-term ELT teacher education courses, Macpherson (2003) notes that trainees are given 'the initial tools' with which to approach the field of ELT. This terminology, which also appears on many short-course advertisements, including both the Trinity and UCLES websites, was quite often used on AU's CertTESOL course, though not published in their handbook or course documents. The course tutors made reference to this notion several times. This seemed to indicate that they were aware that the course was only a stepping stone to further development and that CPs should not view the course as a qualifying degree but rather an 'initiating' degree. The Head of AU's TESOL Centre indicated both in an input session on 'Careers in TESOL' and in a personal interview that this was the case:

- 'I think if you see it as a little starter pack. A little starter pack. It sounds a little patronizing. But as a starter pack, as a set of basic tool kit, to enable somebody to survive in a classroom while they learn and develop...' (Course Tutor, Interview, Sept. 6, 2005).
- 'I think for most of you, it's really important to find out the particular attitudes to in service training because Trinity Cert course sets you up, gives you a set of survival tools basically, and what you need to be doing in your first year or two afterwards is working

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in an environment where you can continue to get support for your learning and development and also find about there are any opportunities for career development' (Course Tutor, Input Session, July 20, 2005).

Terms like 'starter pack' or 'set of basic skills' carry the connotation of survival in a similar way that a first aid kit or a basic survival kit for a wilderness journey do. The idea is that the content provided by the short course constitutes the bare essentials, which will get a novice teacher through the first few months, beyond which s/he must acquire additional tools in order to develop.

Although the course tutors verbally reinforced the aim of survival many times, the intensive nature and components of the course also revealed this aim. Specifically, the rigorous schedule, the limited number of teaching practice hours, and the focus on simple modes of delivery like the PPP approach all paint a picture of the CertTESOL course as being something like a TESOL 'boot camp' of sorts.

First, the rigorous course timetable placed CPs in survival mode, making the course a test of survival and reflecting the long hours most in-service teachers face. In an interview, a course tutor described the course as 'cruel' and as a 'baptism of fire' but went on to note that this 'cruelty', in some ways, prepares CPs for the tough life of a teacher (Course Tutor, Interview, July 21, 2005). However, unappreciative of this fact, the CPs often expressed disapproval at the 'unnecessary' stress that was being added by the number of course assignments and lectures. For example, William noted, 'you know, you've got to persevere... you do have to put an awful lot of work in' (AR, July 19, 2005). Dave expressed anxiety at having to teach so early on in the course, saying that it made him feel intimidated (AR, July 3, 2005), and in an e-mail he wrote to me the following week, he said, 'at times, it does feel like this is all a test of coping rather than learning' (E-mail, July 12, 2005). John agreed, arguing at one point that 'I think it's [the course] more about endurance than anything. If I can just get to the end of tomorrow...' (AR, July 25, 2005). After a discussion about the course exams, Laura noted, 'sometimes, they put on a bit of unnecessary pressure like this phonology test being so unnecessarily long...It could've been much- it's demanding rather a bit too much sometimes' (AR, July 15, 2005).

The limited number of teaching hours also contributed to a 'survival mode' on the course. Reacting to the pressure to become competent in the span of so few teaching hours, the CPs commented that they wished that they could teach more and have fewer lectures. John commented,

> See, the thing is that we're running like double the classes, six classes running at the same time, it doesn't seem to make any sense having two sessions of the same group each night. We shouldn't have so many lectures and just teach more. (John, AR, July 18, 2005)

Others made similar comments. The short time spent in the classroom thus reinforced this atmosphere of survival and, unfortunately, increased the CPs' resentment at having to spend time in input sessions when they could be teaching.

The size of the ELT classes (sometimes exceeding thirty students) during the course also contributed to a survival mode. The CPs were told they could put a 'Class Full' sign on their door when size became unmanageable. Nonetheless, the CPs expressed anxiety at doing this because of their lack of authority and hesitance to turn students away (AR, July 18, 19, 27, 2005). Some of the CPs commented, rather resentfully, that signs advertising free classes (intended to attract students to the classes) should have been taken down once the classes began since they were already coping with thirty or more students in each class each night.

John: How many did we have in the last lesson, 35?
Valerie: yeah
John: 35 [laughs]
Kate: We were being assessed in the intermediate group, and the woman wrote down 20, and
XXX
Rebecca: Yeah, I was doing one, and she said that a Chinese one should be what thirty in a classroom
Valerie: I think it's cause word is getting around that the classes are free.
Rebecca: Yeah but come on, thirty? It's a bit like-
John: Yesterday, on the gatepost, there were big signs advertising for free teaching, and I would think they should take those down by now, wouldn't they?
Valerie: Yeah
Rory: Yeah, I saw that, and I thought oh, my. (AR, July 19, 2005)

Schocker-von Ditfurth and Legutke (2002) provide excerpts from a student teacher's teaching journal that support small class-size in teacher preparation. The student teacher writes, 'It was good to be responsible for a small group of pupils only...this way I learnt a lot about my strengths and weaknesses with regard to giving feedback and advice...' (Schocker von Ditfurth & Legutke, 2002: 169). Certainly, a large class can cause anxiety and classroom management issues as well as a financial strain from creation of materials for so many students (reasons enough to limit class size!). But further, large classes prevent student teachers from gaining insight into the needs of individual students, an important facet of ELT. At AU, the large class sizes contributed to the CPs' stress. Although certainly some EFL teachers face large classes

every day as one of the CPs pointed out in the excerpt above, large class size can damage the confidence of pre-service ELT teachers and their ability to assess individual students' needs. Such is the case particularly when such classes constitute the trainees' only classroom experience. In this way, this element of the short-term course contributed to one objective, instilling survival skills, but detracted from another, instilling confidence.

The focus on the PPP approach to teaching language also reinforced the image of the course as a basic-skills course. As Kaliski and Kent (2000) point out, the PPP approach to teaching language (Presentation-Practice-Production) gives teachers an element of control which is often desirable, particularly to new teachers. It provides what one AU tutor called 'a straightforward example,' noting that in a field with an overwhelming amount of teaching approaches and techniques, 'PPP is a useful one to start with cause it's more or less a logical one' (Course Tutor, Interview, July 6, 2005). . The pros and cons of PPP continue to be debated amongst teachers and researchers alike (see Lewis, 1993; Woodward, 1994; Kaliski & Kent, 2000), but certainly, it is a useful basic skill upon which the novice teacher can rest comfortably. But no doubt the focus placed on this approach during the short course points, again, to the view that this course is designed to impart a set of survival skills for the classroom.

For example, early in the course, one of the course tutors presented 'Stages of the Lesson', an input session which introduced PPP and various ways of using this method (i.e. 'The 5-Stage / 7-Stage / Multi-stage lesson'). Although the tutor stressed that this was only a starting point and that one day we'd probably move away from PPP, the session cemented this method in our memory by use of a drill where we had to stand in a line and recite the different parts of a 5-Stage PPP lesson (Introduction, Presentation, Controlled Practice, Further Practice, Production). The tutor noted,

> Those are the very basic parts of a lesson. Ok. You can see they're put together in different ways. You've got the 3 P's which people who work in the field tend to say these days with a sort of sneer in the voice and a spit on the floor after they've said it but having said that, the 3 P's being the most old fashioned if you like is what is at the core of all the other types of lesson.... These are nice solid frameworks for a lesson. One day you'll move away from these and you won't do anything like this at all. But sometimes you'll come back to it...They're a very very sound framework from which to move away from at some point in the future. A good place to start, I would say to you. (Course Tutor, Input Session, July 2, 2005)

Despite this early focus on PPP, later sessions demonstrated that the tutors did not advocate relying exclusively on this one method of teaching language. In a session on 'Techniques for Teaching Grammar', a course tutor pointed out, 'If we're only using

one approach to teaching grammar, we're not really taking into account the fact that it's not going to be appropriate or useful for some of them' (Course Tutor, Input Session, July 8, 2005). She later argued the importance of not relying on one particular method, particularly for teaching grammar, and mentioned the idea of self-directed discovery. We were later given handouts in this same session that reiterated self-directed discovery and outlined the advantages and disadvantages of a presentation-style of teaching. Another session, entitled 'Alternative Models for Lesson Planning', gave us a brief introduction to task-based language learning (TBL) models, during which we again discussed the advantages and disadvantages of PPP. In particular, the course tutor noted as an advantage the clarity and security that PPP can give an inexperienced teacher. However, despite the tutors' repeated attempts to advocate other forms of lesson planning, a large majority of the CPs used the PPP approach throughout the course's duration, not surprising since we had been drilled on it and given extensive examples of how it might be used. PPP is certainly a convenient and easy option for a novice teacher, and the CPs seemed to rely on it not only for these reasons but also because we were not required to attempt any other types of lesson structures.

Although publications by Trinity College London (TCL, 2006a; 2006b) do not mention survival as a course objective, comments by the course tutors, the demanding timetable, the limited number of teaching hours, and the focus on simple modes of delivery like the PPP approach point to a theme of survival in the short-term course. This objective seemed to stem from the underlying assumption that the most basic, primarily behavioral, elements of ELT are adequate for the novice teacher, an issue that will come under further discussion in Chapter 9. In summary, the notion of a 'basic start pack' reinforces a focus on the practical at the expense of the theoretical and even hints at the acceptability of teaching without understanding underlying theory.

8.6.2.3 A market-driven agenda

To some extent, all universities and course providers must satisfy their customers by offering a wide range of courses, providing well-kept facilities, employing reputable instructors, and setting realistic fee levels, etc. that will attract students. Certainly, without students, course providers cannot exist. However, there is a delicate balance to be struck between meeting market demand and maintaining high academic standards.

The short-term TESOL Certificate course has always been market-driven. John Haycraft first saw the market-niche and used his short course to train teachers as quickly

as possible in order to feed the growing demand. As Lowe (2003: 2) remarks, university undergraduate and postgraduate language teaching degrees in the USA and UK during the 1950's and 60's were scarce and did not incorporate a practical element in teacher education, a shortcoming that Haycraft was perhaps justified in responding to. Haycraft (1998: 193) notes, 'There was no agency supplying [language] teachers, and university departments had no such service...Did any real training exist? The answer was no.' However, this market-driven course has since been established by UCLES and Trinity as *the* way to enter the field in the UK. Although this is surprising from an academic point of view, it is not surprising at all from an economical standpoint. The head of AU's TESOL Centre offered the following explanation:

> Because it is something that a lot people will see – they say, ok, if I invest 1,000 pounds in a four-week course and then I can go off and work in any one of a hundred countries um, and I can recoup the cost of that course in the first year probably, even though it's such a lousy paid profession and you know, it gives me access to travel, employment, it's got a reputation of being value for money in the sense that you get a lot crammed in. (Course Tutor, Interview, Sept. 6, 2005)

The short TESOL Certificate course has survived because it appeals to consumers, who want a quick and easy introduction to the field without making a huge commitment and without spending a great deal of money or time. Although it seems that course providers are aware that the market is driving the short-term course, the established reputation of Trinity and UCLES and the worldwide acceptance of both make it difficult for any one course provider to make any real changes. TESOL Certificates without the brand power of Trinity and UCLES would probably not attract as many trainees and would not have the same reputability. In summary, recognition and accreditation of teacher training courses are crucial.

All of the AU course tutors I interviewed, without exception, mentioned or acknowledged the market value that the CertTESOL course holds for course providers. As one of the course tutors told me,

> it's definitely a market-led course. Um, you know, and the private sector is very much, you know, it's get them on, get them off four weeks. And I can't think of any other profession that would claim that before you started you had nothing, and when you left, you're professionally qualified. It doesn't hang well, really, and I think, you know, the university course has always realized that. (Course Tutor, Interview. July 6, 2005)

As a consequence of the short course being a good money maker, customer satisfaction plays a role in determining the course structure and content. For example, one of the tutors noted that largely because of trainee preference, language learning theory is not a

focal point of the course, that 'it's a case of at Certificate level, people have got an agenda...I mean, they certainly have their own agenda, which necessarily is more practically inclined' (Course Tutor, Interview, July 6, 2005). During the course and afterwards, the CPs clearly stated that they preferred the practical elements of the course, such as the input sessions with practical teaching tips and techniques, and disliked ones lacking in immediate applicability to their own teaching. This is, of course, quite typical. Denemark and Nutter (1984) argue that teachers commonly judge their education as 'too theoretical', most often using this description to refer to anything 'impractical' or 'not based on reality' (see also Ben-Peretz, 1984). Hedgcock (2002) points out that pre-service teacher training programs have shifted away from theory to satisfy pre- and in-service teachers who seem to resist theory as being unpractical for their everyday classroom needs. In this way, the short course is meeting the demands of popular opinion (Richards et al. 1986) and thus serves as an example of a teacher preparation program whose content has been dictated, at least in part, by the market.

The market-driven nature of the CertTESOL course also seems evident in AU's hesitance to award a failing mark. One course tutor noted, in particular, that she could remember only failing three CPs in fourteen years (Interview, July 21, 2005), noting her perhaps admirable desire to 'give everyone a chance'. Such statistics are common, a recent statistic revealing that only 1% of CertTESOL CPs were given a mark of fail in 2006. One AU course tutor offered some insight into why program providers perhaps feel comfortable with such a high pass rate, relating that those who don't show promise in their teaching practice and on the course in general 'are never going to teach because they generally sense that it's not their thing, and they'll not do it...' (Course Tutor, Interview, July 21, 2005). This remark seems to indicate that even if some CPs slip through the cracks, the belief is that weaker ones will realize that they aren't capable of teaching. It appears, then, that most of the control lies with the consumer, who pays for the CertTESOL, receives it, and then bears the responsibility of deciding whether or not s/he wants to enter a field which s/he may or may not be suited for.

Trinity College London does make an effort to assure quality control. For example, a Trinity Moderator visits CertTESOL providers in order to assess course providers and ensure that successful CPs can demonstrate basic understanding of concepts taught on the course, specifically in terms of how materials are exploited in the classroom. However, CPs are given a 'mock interview' to prepare for the moderator's visit, and, if found lacking, are sometimes told what to say almost verbatim in the

interview, as one course tutor revealed (Course Tutor, Interview, July 21. 2005). The Trinity moderator who visited AU explained to me in the group interview (in which he asked us whether or not we were satisfied with the course, etc.) that Trinity College requires that CPs practice their moderation interview with a course tutor. He noted that this helps make CPs less nervous about the actual interview and gives them an opportunity for feedback before 'the real thing'. While this certainly has value, the practice interview at AU appeared to be a means of ensuring the CPs' success, as well, which points again to the powerful market drive behind the short course.

The CPs' attitudes towards their final marks seemed quite consumeristic. Several conversations mid-course indicate that most, if not all, of the CPs felt that they were working hard and, in effect, 'deserved' the Certificate.

> She [Laura] talked about how she was really proud of everyone and thought their level of attendance and commitment was commendable. She said that many of them, particularly William, were working harder than they'd worked ever in their life, most likely, and that didn't I also feel proud of them... She also said that Rebecca was getting top marks and obviously working hard and doing the impossible [traveling one hour each way]. (FN, July 19, 2005)

In fact, none of the CPs expressed any concern over the marks they would receive, discussing instead the fact that they needed only complete 50% of the work in order to receive a pass.

> John and Kate talked before class about the scoring system and how they really only had to put full effort into 50% of the tests in order to get a pass. Kate said she didn't care about her grades at this point - she was just concerned about getting through it and getting the Certificate. (FN, July 14, 2005)

The rigorous nature of the course, which increased the stress levels of all, seemed to make the short course more a test of willpower than necessarily a test of true understanding or development as a teacher. Laura seemed to be saying in the field notes excerpt above that because the CPs were coping with the work, they were all doing well. The other CPs seemed to share this opinion. It seemed that as long as the assignments were turned in, the teaching practice was completed, and some level of attendance was maintained at the input sessions, all would pass the course. In this way, the CPs' expectations were certainly met. From their point of view, they had paid their money, put in the time, and so received the Certificate.

In addition to the moderation interviews, Trinity College attempts to put other quality control in place in terms of its course providers. As one course tutor noted during one input session,

> We have to comply with very strict validation guidelines and we are regularly validated for offering the course. What the moderator has to do then every time they visit the centre is make sure they're actually doing what they say they're doing. (Course Tutor, Input Session, July 20, 2005)

However, this tutor went on to note:

> You'd be surprised – I was surprised as a moderator to find out how often they aren't doing what they say they're doing. I've seen some - one timetable where we actually had 61 hours of input over the whole course and that included the teaching practice workshop, and that was a four weeks only course with no previous distance learning thing or anything, and they just quietly dropped sessions off and nobody noticed, but I did. And that's one of the things that happened. (Course Tutor, Input Session, July 20, 2005)

The tutor later mentioned that she had visited one CertTESOL course provider run exclusively by one tutor, who taught all of the input sessions and managed all aspects of the course. The AU tutor stated the following day that most other providers just 'skim the surface' in terms of preparing teachers to enter the ELT classroom. 'They do the basics of what they have to do' (Course Tutor, Interview, July 21, 2005). These comments raise the question of whether or not Trinity rates its CertTESOL providers in terms of how well they meet the validation requirements. Scrutiny of Trinity's published validation requirements (TCL, 2006b) indicates that providers are only given a pass/fail mark, meaning that they are simply either validated or not validated. A recent e-mail from Trinity College London revealed that Trinity does not currently rate its course providers, nor does it have any intention of doing so. Their rationale is that this type of rating would be impossible to implement because each provider delivers their courses in a slightly different way, making a 'points system' very difficult to develop. UCLES issued a similar statement (E-mail, May 15, 2006), and their website offers additional insight:

> We do not comment on individual centres or provide individual centre results. All of our courses are approved and meet Cambridge ESOL's minimum requirements. Candidates need to make their own decision regarding which centre they feel would be most suitable for them and if they have any concerns, they should raise them when attending the interview for a place on a course. (UCLES, 2006)

It seems that at this time, prospective CPs have no way of ascertaining which Certificate providers are more reputable than others, aside from word of mouth or the claims of individual providers. Unfortunately, this does a disservice to those providers, such as AU, which exceed the validation requirements.

Despite the powerful influence that the market has had on the way the AU CertTESOL course has been structured and developed over the years, the course tutors

made some decisions that were not market-driven. For example, as previously noted, AU's CertTESOL course requires the DL component not currently required by Trinity College. In this way, this particular provider seems to be making some valiant attempts at increasing the rigor of the course beyond formal requirements. Somewhat discouragingly, however, one of the course tutors mentioned that some short-term course providers are pushing for an abolishment of the distinction between TEFL initiated and TEFL qualified, meaning that the Trinity Diploma and the DELTA (which many describe as making a person TEFL qualified) could be on their way out. This AU tutor elaborated by noting,

> And I'm one of the group who's resisting [the abolishment of the distinction between TEFL initiated and TEFL qualified] quite strongly because I don't think, if you say you're qualified as an English language teacher, then the non-TEFL world expects someone who has the equivalent of a PGCE um, and you know, a one year postgraduate course, and you might be able to justify that for a diploma level but not for somebody who's just done a standard four-week course, and I think ours is sort of a hybrid, which has better outcomes for the students and gives better preparation but they still obviously haven't had – how many hours of teaching do you do?... I think it [the four-week course] will stay purely because it has got, it's got a very, very strong market niche... I think the danger is more the other end. I think the danger is that the diploma will slowly die...(Course Tutor, Interview, Sept. 6, 2005)

It seems that in the face of a market demanding the short course and in the face of the dwindling numbers of Certificate CPs pursing the TESOL Diploma (approximately 10%, according to Roberts, 1998), responsible Certificate course providers are including more content in the hopes that this will make some impact on the future development of ELT teachers. Others are, as Roberts (1998) notes, less interested in providing a rigorous course, given the lack of long-term commitment to the field of ELT. As Roberts asks, what is the point of investing in a short-term market that doesn't demand more? His statement, unfortunately, sums up the present situation, where ELT is, unfortunately, viewed as a trade rather than a profession.

Chapter 9: The Practicum Component

As discussed in Chapter 5, an important focus of this research is on the Practicum component of short-term teacher education. Teacher education has focused heavily on the Practicum in recent years largely due to student teachers' belief that this component is the most valuable in preparing them for their first job. This alone warrants an investigation into whether or not such a focus is beneficial. Further, Lortie's (1975) discussion of the 'apprenticeship of observation' and subsequent research into teachers' beliefs about teaching suggests that teachers, particularly novice ones, tend to teach as they have been taught. This calls for examination of whether or not this is true during pre-service teachers' first teaching opportunity. Finally, research investigating the Practicum component of short-term education specifically is crucial because little research on this topic has been done, although certainly interest is growing, particularly in the area of teacher beliefs. As Johnson writes,

> a better understanding of pre-service teachers' perceptions of the Practicum may enable the field of second language teacher education to better understand how second language teachers learn to teach and how teacher preparation programs can effectively enhance this development process. (Johnson, K.E., 1996a: 47)

This chapter will include discussion of the Practicum component, including its structure and implementation, how it was prioritized on one short-term TESOL Certificate course, and whether or not this prioritization is justified in this context. This chapter will also examine the role of reflective practice on a short-term course, including the reaction of CPs to the required teaching practice journal and whether or not reflective practice can be realistically included in a short course. In addition, the role of language awareness in short-term teacher training will be examined, particularly in terms of how the CPs used this component of the course input in their practice teaching. Finally, this chapter will evaluate the Practicum component of short-term TESOL Certificate courses and explore possible implications for TESOL teacher education.

9.1: The Practicum Component Introduced

AU's CertTESOL Trainee Handbook provides a summary of the importance that is placed on the practice teaching component.

> Trainees complete a minimum of 10 teaching/observation events which are assessed through the trainee teacher's teaching ability as shown in observed teaching practice and feedback, together with the materials journal and teaching practice journal. **This part of the assessment is the component in which future employers show most interest.** (AU, 2005: 20, emphasis mine).

The teaching practice component of the course was, in this way, stressed from the start, and this is certainly typical for short-term courses, as the literature suggests (see England, 1998; Borg, 2005). As Smith and Lev-Ari note, 'Whereas it might be possible to learn about teaching in theoretical courses, the knowledge of teaching...can only be acquired by active engagement in teaching' (Smith & Lev-Ari, 2005: 291). As Chapter 4 explored, the Practicum is included so that teachers-in-training can be equipped with an awareness of the principles and decision-making that underlie effective teaching and the distinction between effective and ineffective teaching practices (see Day, 1990). The inclusion of this important component is hardly disputed (see Wallace, 1991; Woodward, 1992); however, the manner in which such a component is implemented and the amount of time devoted to it has been discussed (see Chapter 4).

This section provides details regarding the nature of the Practicum component in the Trinity CertTESOL course. Although information regarding how the Practicum is typically structured and introduced on short courses will be provided, this section will rely on the specifics of the Practicum at the AU. This will also include discussion of the unusual distance learning component at AU which few short course providers include but which lays some groundwork for the Practicum.

9.1.1 The purpose of the Practicum

As briefly discussed in Chapters 3, 4, and 8 (see especially 8.6.1), the CertTESOL validation guidelines (TCL, 2006b: 19) note the specific skills that trainees must demonstrate by the end of the course, thus revealing a focus on overt teaching behaviors and indicating an inherently performance-based teacher education philosophy. Although the guidelines do not specifically state the purpose of the Practicum, its list of outcomes and demonstrated skills (TCL, 2006b: 19) point to the rationale that the Practicum be included for two primary reasons:

1. It provides an opportunity for employment of performance skills.
2. Its inclusion meets the standards set by the QCA in terms of 'vocational validity, relevance and professional integrity...' (TCL, 2006b: 18).

As one of AU's course handouts advises, the Practicum component is what employers first expect, and any teacher education course that does not include it would thus be failing its participants. Whether or not the Practicum fulfills these goals, as well as whether or not these objectives should be revised, will be investigated in the final section of this chapter.

9.1.2 The distance learning component

Typically, pre-service teachers begin preparation for the teaching practice once they begin taking the course and no sooner. However, AU provides its CPs with some basic tools during a Distance Learning (DL) phase by means of an 'Introduction to the Classroom Teaching of ESOL' unit. This unit contains six modules, the contents are which are each outlined in Table 9.1.

Module 1 Topics: ■ Familiarizing Yourself with an ESOL Textbook (Includes locating different topics covered in the book and examining the way topics are organized within the book) ■ Understanding the notion of *Eliciting* ■ Introduction to *Role-Plays* and *Information Gap Activities* ■ Introduction to the notions of *Explanation*, *Modelling*, and *Feedback* ■ Identifying the stages of an activity: *Preparation, Activity, Feedback* **Module 1 Assessed Worksheet Tasks:** ■ Reflecting on good teacher qualities ■ Creating an interesting lead-in to a lesson ■ Identifying appropriate/inappropriate instructions for a particular task ■ Watching a sample lesson on video and reflecting on what motivates/demotivates students ■ Explaining and Modelling an Activity
Module 2 Topics: ■ The Role of the Teacher: *User, Analyst, Manager* ■ Introduction to the notion of *Presentation* ("…the teacher selects the language the students are to use and presents it meaningfully" (SAQ 2, Intro to Classroom Teaching Module 2 of Distance Learning) and *Practice*. ■ Introduction to *Pair Work* **Module 2 Assessed Worksheet Tasks:** ■ Reflecting on Teacher Roles ■ Creating an effective transition from one activity to another ■ Reflecting on Teacher Presentation: Identifying grammatical structures students should review before being presented with a new structure ■ Reflecting on the role of Eliciting in Teacher Presentation ■ Creating a basic lesson plan using the basic PPP approach (Context, Engage, Study)
Module 3 Topics: ■ Introduction to Oral Activities (including how to use various types of activities to encourage speaking) ■ Reinforcement of PPP: 　　'We want to think now about what surrounds an oral activity, whether it is a practice activity….or a communicative activity…What comes before? The presentation stage perhaps, introducing the grammatical form of a structure, and presentation and practice of

the phonological form too' (SAQ 5, Intro to Classroom Teaching Module 3 of DL).
- Giving Instructions (including the notions of lead-in, instruct, enabling)
- Giving feedback to oral activities

Module 3 Assessed Worksheet Tasks:
- Organizing lesson activities into a logical order (from guided to autonomous)
- Creating effective instructions (including a lead-in and instruct stage)
- Creating an effective pair-work activity (including introducing, instructing, and enabling the task)
- Identifying the characteristics of a good speaking activity
- Anticipating problems with certain activities

Module 4 Topics:
- Introduction to the Four Skills (including the notion of integrating skills)
- Introduction to the ideas of Prediction, Register, etc.

Module 4 Assessed Worksheet Tasks:
- Choosing a listening exercise from a textbook and reflecting on its components
- Creating an 'authentic' task based on 'authentic' materials
- Defining different types of reading skills (scanning, skimming, reading for detailed information, reading for pleasure)
- Reflecting on pre-writing exercises and their usefulness
- Reflecting on the integration of skills

Module 5 Topics:
- Establishing a Context (using verbal and non-verbal resources like OHP, white board, gestures, cue cards, etc).

Module 5 Assessed Worksheet Tasks:
- Examining the ways in which materials and aids are used in a particular textbook
- Creating cue cards for a particular activity
- Examining a lesson on video and how the teacher exploits materials
- Examining the use of pictures in a textbook
- Devising strategies to deal with specific vocabulary questions (i.e. A student asks for clarification of the word 'confused')

Module 6 Topics:
- Creating Natural Transitions in a Lesson
- Reinforcing the notion of Good Instructions (lead-in, instruct, initiate)
- Examining the effect of seating arrangements on lesson effectiveness
- Creating lesson objectives

Module 6 Assessed Worksheet Tasks:
- Reflecting on why a teacher needs to be flexible in the classroom
- Coming up with ideas on how to deal with 'early finishers'
- Creating a speaking activity for a particular context from a textbook
- Creating lesson objectives for a unit in a textbook
- Creating a one-hour lesson plan, using a specified pro-forma, including 'why you've chosen to do each activity, what aids and materials you would use...the length of time for each activity' (TAQ 5, Intro to Classroom Teaching Module 6, DL).

Table 9.1: Distance learning module: Basic outline of 'Introduction to the classroom teaching of ESOL'

This DL module is similar to the course objectives in its focus on a set of skills for the novice teacher to acquire. Each task is largely practically-driven, focusing on observable techniques and teacher behaviors. In addition, it's notable that each CP is asked to be reflective on several occasions, for example being required to reflect on the integration of skills or the different roles of a teacher. The intention of this may be to

prepare CPs for the reflective practice required in the Teaching Practice (TP) Journal assignment.

Out of all of the DL units, the CPs expressed the most frustration with the 'Intro to Teaching' unit, noting that certain parts like the lesson planning were very difficult to complete (since many of them had never planned a lesson before) and that the worksheets were subjectively graded with no rationale provided for the marks given (FN, July 3, 2005). Curiously, however, there was no further mention of this set of worksheets during the course, either by the CPs or the course tutors. While certainly many of the input sessions (lectures) reiterated much of the content in the 'Intro to Classroom Teaching' unit, it would probably have been helpful to discuss the worksheets, thereby making a connection between the DL and the classroom teaching. However, many of the CPs later noted that they had put the DL material behind them and didn't want to revisit it, a further indication that the DL was likely to have only very limited impact on their practice teaching. One could argue however, that while the CPs certainly gave no verbal indication that they relied on any of the DL content, certainly some of the DL content may have been unconsciously drawn upon in the CPs' teaching practice. In fact, as Chapter 10 will provide evidence of, one of the CPs remarked on the value of the DL after the course was over, indicating that given time, the course input may have longer-term impact.

In any event, the 'Intro to Classroom Teaching' unit was a laudable introduction to the basic concepts of language teaching. Despite the unit's heavy emphasis on only one basic type of lesson planning (Presentation – Practice – Production), an emphasis which would later re-emerge on the direct contact phase of the course, it covered many practical points, such as choosing a textbook, etc. (see Table 9.1). In addition, the CPs probably arrived better prepared, at least in terms of exposure to ELT 'jargon', as one CP put it, than CPs on less rigorous courses. In fact, some of the course tutors intimated that Trinity is considering requiring that all course providers include some such pre-course teaching practice preparation. It is difficult, however, to assess how much impact, if any, this unit had on the CPs, particularly since they made little to no reference to it during the course. Most of the CPs struggled with the basics, such as giving instructions, choosing activities suitable for the lesson's objectives, and managing the classroom and seemed to have forgotten what the DL taught in regards to these areas. This may call into question the effectiveness of the way in which the DL was implemented. However, AU can be applauded for its efforts in this way,

particularly given the call by some to incorporate a 'self-study correspondence unit' into short-term TESOL Certificate courses (Davis, 1990). Some suggestions with regards to AU's implementation of this idea will be included in the final chapter.

9.1.3 The structure of the Practicum

This section will include an overview of the structure of the Practicum at one CertTESOL course provider, including the model of microteaching it employed. its timetabling, and the different types of teaching required (solo and team).

9.1.3.1 Focus on behavior modification

MacLeod (1984: 5975) outlines four models of microteaching commonly used to structure the practice teaching component of initial teacher education:

1. **pragmatism**
   Focus is placed on discovering the ideal combination of the components of microteaching to enable the most effective acquisition of skills. Emphasis is placed on modeling, reinforcement, and collaboration between trainee and trainer to find solutions to problems.
2. **behaviour modification**
   Teaching skills are viewed as sets of acquirable behaviors.
3. **social skills**
   Learning to teach is analogous to learning perceptual and motor skills.
4. **the cognitive model**
   Teaching skills are seen as 'ways of thinking' rather than as ways of behaving. Focus is on longer-term perspective rather than short-term behavioral changes.

At AU, the tutors seemed to attempt a structure of the Practicum similar to MacLeod's pragmatic model. After each teaching session, CPs discussed their classroom experience with a tutor, and the tutors emphasized the importance of each CP's vocalizing what s/he had learned rather than focusing on the problems. However, as the problems that the CPs and tutors most often mentioned were issues with teacher behavior, the idea that this Practicum closely resembled the pragmatic model can be questioned.

Instead, in practice, AU's Practicum resembles MacLeod's behavior modification model in that focus was placed in feedback sessions on teacher behaviors like giving instructions, modeling, and setting up activities. Chapter 10 (see 10.4.1) provides examples of the specific behaviors identified as desirable or undesirable by the tutors, including a clear voice and elicitation (desirable) and lack of modeling and lecture-format (undesirable).

9.1.3.2 The Practicum timetable

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

| Week One | Week Two | Week Three | Week Four |

Day
1   3   6   8   18   20   22

→ Observation   → Team-Teach   ————→ Solo-Teach ————————→   → Team-Teach   → Solo-Teach
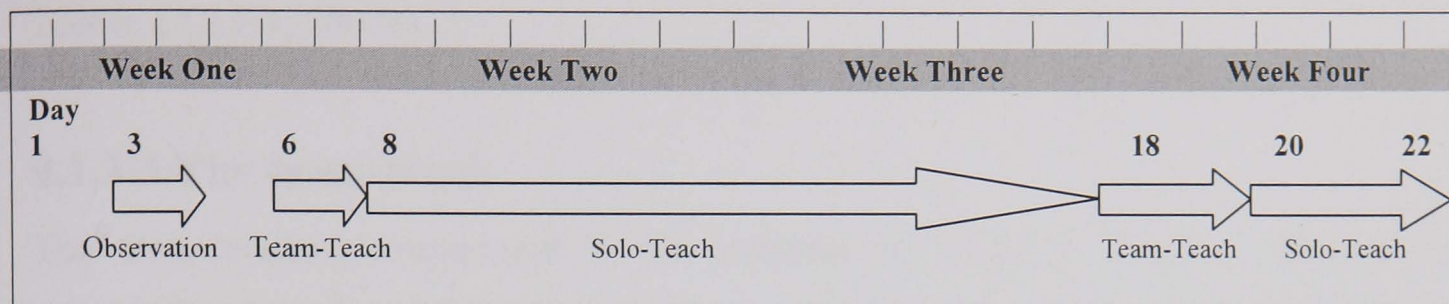
Table 9.2: Timetabling of the Practicum
Note: Only timetabled days (not free weekends) are included on this diagram.

The Practicum component of the CertTESOL and CELTA courses is timetabled into the course very early on (see Table 9.2). At AU, after two nights of observing 'experienced' teachers (nights three and four of the course), teaching practice begins on the sixth night, taking place from that point forward from 6:00 – 8:00 pm each evening of the week. In light of other course timetables, this is unusual since most providers generally operate only during the day, typically using the morning hours for input sessions and the afternoon hours for teaching practice (Course Tutor, Interview, July 21, 2005). A web search for both CELTA and CertTESOL timetables reveals this to be true with most course providers ending each training day at 5:00 pm.

Because many CELTA and CertTESOL providers also operate as ELT centers, classes both to observe and to use for practice teaching are readily available. In the case of AU, however, the ELT classes taught by experienced instructors were used neither for the observation period nor for the teaching practice itself. Instead, the ELT classes used for the practice teaching component were free and open to the public, the students' being primarily local asylum seekers or university students seeking additional opportunities to practice their English. The teachers used for the period of observation (nights 3 and 4 of the course) were either in-house teachers or, in the case of both teachers I observed, teachers from the local community, who had completed the CertTESOL course at AU and were seeking additional teaching practice (Course Tutor, Interview, July 6, 2005).

All of the CPs were given a teaching practice timetable, which indicated that once we chose a certain slot, we would teach the same level on the same two nights each week until the final week when we would be 'trained' to teach a different level (using team-teaching) and teach this new level once on our own (see Table 9.2, the start of week 4). Again, teaching practice in classrooms of two different levels is required by both Trinity College and UCLES, the rationale being that CPs are prepared for more

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than one teaching environment, having taught more than one level of proficiency (TCL, 2006b; UCLES, 2007a).

9.1.3.3 The team-teach

The team-teaching component is not included in UCLES' *CELTA Syllabus and Assessment Guidelines* (UCLES, 2007a), nor could I locate any providers that included this type of teaching practice. However, as allowed but not required by Trinity College's guidelines (2006b: 20), before any solo-teaching took place, each CP at AU completed a team-teaching lesson with a partner. One of the course tutors later told me that the purpose of the team-teach is to reduce stress and ease new teachers into the classroom. She noted, 'I could see the stress that people were having, actually having to plan and prepare the entire thing themselves, which is what used to happen, so now you take responsibility for one part' (Course Tutor, Interview, July 21, 2005). The 'Preparation for Team Teaching' handout provides the details:

> For this first teaching experience, we give you some lesson materials from which to choose, and one (or two) teaching partners. We ask you to teach two lessons on one evening: one in which you are the 'leading' partner, and one in which you are the 'sleeping' partner. When you are the' leading' partner, <u>you</u> plan the lesson, and allocate some parts of it to your 'sleeping' partner to teach. When your partner is leading, they will ask you to take part in a lesson which <u>they</u> have been responsible for planning. In this way, we leave you free to do the actual planning alone, while still involving both you and your partner in the execution of the lesson. (AU Handout, 2005)

The 'lesson materials' referred to in this quotation originate in a textbook entitled 'Inside Out'. We were given specific page numbers and instructed to cover the content on those pages, although we could use the textbook activities, a self-modified version of them, or our own created materials to teach the specified content. These team-teach lessons were then observed by a tutor, who filled out a pro-forma consisting of spaces to write three positive and three negative comments for each lesson observed. The observing tutor then met with both CPs the day afterwards to discuss what s/he had seen. These same proformas were used for all subsequent teaching practice observations.

During the last week of the course, CPs again complete a team-teaching session wherein each CP 'trains' another CP to teach his/her level. The instructions for this team-teach are as follows:

> <u>**When the team teach is in YOUR (old) class:**</u>
> YOU plan the lesson, on your own, Friday and over the weekend.

Plan a lesson which has a number of activities so that you can share them with your partner.
Allocate certain tasks in the lesson to your partner - not right at the beginning, though, give them a few minutes to get the feel of the group.
Teach the lesson *together*, with your partner doing the tasks you have allocated. Both of you should monitor student-led activities.
(Please remember to *introduce* your partner to the class.)
<u>**When the team teach is in your NEW class.**</u>
You aren't involved in the planning. You simply do as you're told! (AU Handout, 2005)

Again, the team-teach involved no collaboration in terms of planning, and individuals prepared the lessons on their own and allocated certain tasks to their partner.

The team-teach seemed to be a good opportunity to ease anxiety and allow us to brainstorm with another CP, advantages both noted in the literature on team-teaching. Johnston and Madejski (1990) note the benefits of ELT team teaching as well as a recommendation for how it can be effectively accomplished. They include several advantages, including the increased confidence of working with a colleague that it provides, the creative energy released when two or more minds collaborate, the positive effect on the learners who may mimic the teachers' collaboration, and the time that working together can save. However, they point out that 'If team teaching is to be true to its name, rather than just an extra teacher being present in the classroom, then the teamwork should begin with the joint planning of the lesson' (Johnston & Madejski, 1990: 13). Stewart and Perry (2005) agree, arguing that even when team teaching is defined in the loosest of terms, it always begins with group planning. They note that the highest level of collaboration involves 'courses that are co-planned, co-taught and evaluated by a pair or a group of teachers' (Stewart & Perry, 2005: 3).

In the case of AU's course, even Stewart and Perry's loosest of definitions cannot encompass this instance of team teaching. As the team-teaching handout excerpt above indicates, the team teaching requires no joint planning, and comments by the other CPs seemed to re-enforce the conclusion that the initial team-teach may have accomplished little since most of the CPs incorporated their partner very little. Laura told me before her team-teach with Carl, 'Well, we'll just interview each other at the beginning rather than doing it separately, and we'll just say we're team teaching' (Laura, AR, July 7, 2005). John told me he felt that the team-teach wasn't explained properly and that he didn't really know what it meant to plan a lesson with another person.

It was team teaching but one person's responsible for the second and one person's responsible for the first. It wasn't clear. Cause I originally thought team teaching is you both taught on lesson. But is it? I'm not sure. (John, AR, July 7, 2005)

John further explained his preference to work on his own and noted that the team-teaching aspect complicated an already stressful situation. Another CP, Laura, expressed her views after her first lesson, laughing, 'It wasn't really team teaching, but we'll say that's what we did' (Laura, AR, July 8, 2005). As Trinity's published validation guidelines provide no specifics as to how the team-teaching is implemented, it seems up to the individual provider to specify this. And unfortunately, like other well-intentioned elements of the course, some of its potential usefulness seemed lost since many of the CP's failed to understand the point and didn't take it very seriously.

9.1.3.4 Solo teaching

The solo-teaching in both the CELTA and CertTESOL provides opportunities and encouragement for the CPs to create their own materials, thus moving beyond the course book that trainees are often given to get them started. Trinity College, in fact, requires that individuals create original materials, and the Trinity Moderator assesses a selection of each individual's created materials, as one tutor put it, 'looking for original or substantially adapted materials…they need to see that you've adapted it in some way' (Course Tutor, Input Session, July 2, 2005). At AU, CPs are also given a 'TP Checklist' handout that outlines the range of teaching topics required (AU Handout, 2005):

1. 4 x lessons with a focus on language development (input/review)
    a. 1 x Lexis
    b. 3 x functions/structures. At least 2 of the 4 must have a clear focus on form.
2. 3 x lessons with a focus on skills development, taking from:
    a. Reading
    b. Writing
    c. Speaking
    d. Listening

As another handout notes, 'You need to teach a variety of lessons' (AU Handout, 2005). The 'TP Checklist' also includes a place to note which types of lessons CPs teach on which days to ensure that they fulfil this requirement by the end of the course.

9.2: The Prioritization of the Practicum and the Role of Theory in ITE

One of the earliest short-term TESOL teacher training courses, John Haycraft's two-week program for native-speakers of English, provided pre-service teachers with the practical 'pithy teaching formulas' that more formal qualifications like the PGCE were not providing in the 1960's (Haycraft: 1998: 194). Since then, the short-term course has remained as it began, focusing primarily on teacher behavior with less attention paid to the nature of language and how it is acquired (see Kennedy, 1989; Richards, Ho. & Giblin, 1996). This section will explore ways in which one Trinity CertTESOL course prioritized practice over theory and whether or not such a prioritization is justified, thereby examining the role of theory in teacher education and whether or not its inclusion in a short-term course is feasible.

9.2.1 Ways practice is prioritized

As Chapter 2.2.1 noted, when a teacher education course is labelled as primarily practical, a likely assumption is its neglect of intentional examination and/or critique of personal theory. Such is the case here. This sub-section will examine the ways in which practice is typically prioritized on short-term TESOL Certificate courses, including course timetabling, the structure of course assessment, and the tutors' response to CPs' preference of practice over theory. By referring separately to the terms 'practice' and 'theory' in this sub-section and others, it might appear that this thesis assumes the two to be separate and distinct. However, this separation of terms is a reflection only of the nature of the short course itself, which, in some ways, dichotomizes theory (defined primarily as generalizations from educational research; see Chapter 2.2.1) and practice. As Chapter 11 will further detail, this thesis concludes with a recommendation that such a dichotomy be rejected, in line with what many in the literature have contended (see Johnson, 1996b; Richards, 1999; Williams, 1999; Johnson, 2006).

9.2.1.1 Timetabling

Examination of on-line TESOL Certificate course timetables (both CELTA and CertTESOL) shows that a devotion to practice-teaching related topics during the first days of the course is typical, though there are exceptions where language awareness

modules are completed first. Michaela Borg's (2005) report on the change in pedagogic thinking of a pre-service teacher on a CELTA course describes a timetable quite similar to the one used on AU's CertTESOL course. Borg writes, 'The course consisted on a daily basis of: guided preparation for teaching practice (TP); two input sessions; teaching practice; and teaching practice feedback' (Borg, 2005: 7). TESOL Certificate courses, in this way, typically begin with basic tools for teaching (lesson planning, aids and materials, classroom management, etc.) and carry the focus on practice teaching through the rest of the course with the majority of sessions' dealing with immediately applicable teaching skills and techniques. By so doing, they send the message that the Practicum is the fundamental element of the course.

While certainly the short duration of the Certificate course makes it mandatory that the logistics of the practice teaching be dealt with immediately, the AU course providers seemed from day one to be stressing that the practice teaching was the most important component of the course. After a brief welcome and introduction to the course as a whole, the course providers at AU begin immediate preparation of the CPs for the Practicum. In fact, the first five days of the course are devoted to topics such as 'Intro to the Teaching Component', 'Communicative Language Teaching', 'Stages of the Lesson', 'Lesson Planning', 'Writing Linguistics Objectives and Preparing for Teaching Events', Teaching Techniques', and 'Classroom Language and Management'. Time is also allotted to lesson plan checks during which tutors are available to go over potential lesson plans and offer advice, and the timetable offers several 'study days' and half-days to finalize team-teach lesson plans and plan lessons.

This focus on practice forced by the four-week duration is criticized by several in the literature. In her examination of three ELT teacher training sites (2 CELTA, 1 Diploma), Baxter notes that 'the imposition of an arbitrary time constraint has deeper consequences, which are connected with the way the courses treat different types of knowledge and the status of theory and practice...' (Baxter, 2003: 114). By choosing the four-week framework (albeit with a distance learning module), the tutors and thus the CPs force a prioritization of practice to the detriment of intake of the more theory-based course input.

9.2.1.2 Course assessment

By beginning with more practical sessions before stress and general loss of interest led the CPs to start skipping sessions, the course providers at AU seemed to give the

impression that they believed these practical sessions to be of more value than the others. However, even as the timetable expanded to include more 'theory-based' sessions such as contrastive analysis, cultural awareness, and psycholinguistics, the relaxed attendance requirements placed on the CPs seemed to suggest that the input sessions were not a priority. Though the handbook clearly states that CPs must attend all lectures, the CPs began skipping these regularlywith no apparent penalty.

Recent conversations with some other Certificate course providers reveals that some are stricter about attendance, and examination of the literature reveals no discussion of any common practice among course providers of making attendance noncompulsory. However, the attitude towards this particular component of the course at this particular course provider and the failure of the Trinity moderator to request information about attendance during the feedback meeting with CPs suggests that there may be other course providers who are also relaxed on attendance. On the other hand, attendance during the teaching practice component was strictly enforced at AU, again showing a priority for this component of the course over others.

9.2.1.3 The CPs' priorities

Previous sections have already explored how teachers tend to view the Practicum component as the most important part of their teacher education, and data collected at AU is consistent with this. During the first input session of AU's CertTESOL course, one of the course tutors addressed areas of anxiety related to the teaching practice. Having already received several large handbooks about the course, outlining the various forms and assignments, the CPs seemed overwhelmed and expressed their anxiety by mentioning things like feeling 'apprehensive' (Donald), 'worried about where we're going to find the time to actually prepare these classes' (Laura), 'concerned that my mental energy will be exhausted by the time teaching begins' (John), and 'how students will ask questions that I don't know the answer to' (Rory, Amber). As the course progressed, all of the CPs without exception repeatedly expressed their dislike of anything lacking in immediate applicability and their preference for assignments that offered practical application to their teaching practice. Some of their comments include:

- '[Tutor's name]'s [input sessions] are very practical...And from that point of view, it's worth seeing them if you've never seen these things before'. (Donald, AR, July 14, 2005)

- 'I've found some of the classes helpful as there have been lots of new things to think about when putting our teaching into action; lesson planning, etc.'. (Amber, E-mail, July 13, 2005)
- 'I think if they like come out of it of the input but have more time with the profiles, the journals and the teaching plans and things'. (Rebecca, AR, July 7, 2005)
- 'We shouldn't have so many lectures and just teach more'. (John, AR, July 19, 2005)
- 'This [lecture on vocabulary] is so bloody boring...If I've already did my vocabulary lesson, I can't be bothered'. (Rebecca, AR, July 18, 2005)
- 'I can't see the point in learning a language if it's not going to be used in a real context'. (John, AR, July 5, 2005)
- 'We did these [language awareness modules] in the distance learning. I don't know why we're doing it again'. (Rory, AR, July 15, 2005)
- 'The only thing is that it [the course] is so much hard work, but most of it is just pointless'. (John, AR, July 28, 2005)
- 'Most of the time [during the input sessions] I'm just thinking about what I'm gonna put in my lesson'. (Matthew, AR, July 12, 2005)

One of the CPs, Donald, who often functioned as the voice of the group, often asked the question, 'What is the usefulness of this in teaching?' during input sessions and remarked later that he felt the usefulness of the more theoretical sessions had not been adequately explained, making him wonder why we had to 'bloody do it' (FN, July 14, 2005). At one point, he whispered (during an activity where we had to evaluate statements related to language learning theory) that he didn't feel qualified to evaluate theoretical statements since he had never heard of these theories before and had no experience on which to make any judgment.

In addition to such comments, the CPs' teaching also reflected their preference for input sessions providing teaching techniques and tips. While they immediately applied techniques like melee, pair work, board work, and group work, their attitude to sessions on theoretical principles was much less positive. This was manifested largely in their TP Journal entries, which failed to connect any of the concepts in the input sessions to the choices they made in regards to lesson planning and execution. The dominant influences on their teaching seemed to be the observing tutors' comments, which focused mainly on teacher behaviors and skills, Practicum experience, and each CP's existing beliefs about teaching. Some typical examples from the TP Journals highlight these influences and the absence of reference to the input sessions (see Table 9.3). The CPs' disregard for theory and preference for practice echoes the literature (see de Sonneville, 2007) and calls into question both the role of theory in teacher education and how it is typically presented on the short course. In the case of this particular course, theory (manifested in discussions or presentation of material about language learning theory) was separated from practice (i.e. role plays and games, lesson planning

methods, etc.). Limited discussion and reflection was initiated by the tutors on how ideas about second language acquisition or broader questions surrounding teaching methodology might translate to the teaching practice component.

Amber	• From the discussion with the tutor, it has become apparent that there is a definitive need for clear, concise language use in the classroom. (TP Journal, 1LE) • I feel that the last few weeks of hands-on teaching has made the biggest impact, both on my approach to teaching, and my personal development as a teacher. (TP Journal, 7LE)
William	• The lesson made it very apparent that I have to be very clear in the instructions I give and obviously repeat them and ensure they are said slowly. (TP Journal, 1LE) • I thought the instructions were effective – I modeled the activities quite well before letting them get on with things. I have tried to do this as the feedback suggested it was a point worth looking at. (TP Journal, 4LE)
John	• My class management techniques and skills have been consistently noted as strong, even when I was feeling doubtful about my class management. (TP Journal, 5LE)

Table 9.3: Evidence from TP Journal entries of impact of feedback sessions on course participants' awareness of weakness

AU's course tutors' response to a display of the preference for practice was quite surprising and seemed to initiate a vicious circle (see Figure 2) where the focus on practice over theory was fed by both tutors and CPs. More specifically, the CPs' negativity towards language learning and teaching theory was reinforced by both the structure of the TP Journal and the tutors' limited effort to connect theory with practice. A typical feedback session involved the observing tutor walking the CP through his/her lesson, commenting on the skills and behaviors the CP exhibited and how they might be improved. In this way, theory and practice were dichotomized, predisposing the CPs to prefer practical input. In addition, the tutors occasionally responded to the CPs' negative comments about theoretical sessions with sympathy, sometimes ending class early when the CPs were particularly disgruntled. The cycle continued with the CPs' negative attitude unchecked, further resulting in lack of enthusiasm for the majority of the input sessions. Baxter's (2003) research on short-term teacher education provides similar findings, and she includes the following telling excerpt from her field notes recorded while observing a CELTA course:

> In summary, the prevailing feeling I had at the end of the lesson was that the students were being asked to internalise a 'good' way of teaching, and that this was being done rather effectively. The trainees were given maxims, tips, without being encouraged to think of the basis of such ideas or even to think of their own, which might contradict the 'method'. (Baxter, 2003: 103)

De Sonneville's (2007) study on in-service ELT teacher development reaches the same conclusion, arguing that focusing on accruing knowledge and skills inhibits change in beliefs, which, in turn, restricts behavior transformation. The CPs' priorities, then, speak volumes to the structure and nature of the short course, where, given a lack of time, CPs are encouraged to practice 'effective' behaviors and skills without analyzing their beliefs by comparing them to a theoretical model.
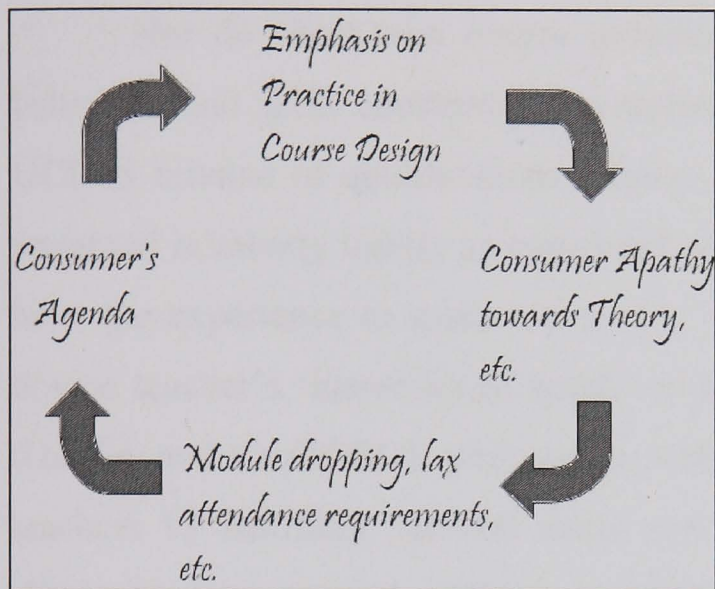
Figure 2: The cycle of practice over theory

9.2.2 The role of theory in short-term teacher education

The notion of 'practice first, theory later' is supported in much of the literature on language teacher education. Schön (1983) was one of the first to provide a model for developing reflective teachers. His three step process includes first providing students with technical training, progressing to helping them think like professionals, and finally, enabling them to develop new forms of understanding and action. Worthy (2005) argues that 'Indeed, many researchers have found that teachers learn their job in stages, and that their concerns and needs change as they gain experience in the classroom' (Worthy, 2005: 381). She outlines the typical stages of novice teachers: survival, consolidation, and renewal, pointing out that each stage requires a different approach on the part of teacher educators. Other writers and researchers have similar views, including Donald Freeman (1989), who outlines novice teachers' 'hierarchy of needs'. He argues,

> Novice teachers must first address the question 'What do I teach?'. Once this is under their control, they will ask, 'How do I teach what I teach?' and only further along the road in their development will they be able to ask 'Why do I teach what I teach? Why do I teach the way I do?'. (Freeman, 1989: 27)

Finding literature that rejects the importance of theory in the journey of a novice teacher on the road to experience is quite difficult, in fact. Theory is defined in innumerable

ways, sometimes as 'core disciplinary knowledge about the nature of language and language acquisition' (Yates & Muchisky, 2003: 136) and sometimes more broadly as an examination of how and why teachers make classroom decisions (Richards, 1990; Freeman & Johnson, 1998). That said, few argue that the acquisition of basic teaching skills without examination of theory, rooted in both conceptual and perceptual knowledge, is in itself sufficient for language teacher education.

Nor do short-term course providers seem to argue that a mastery of teacher behaviors and skills constitutes a completed teacher education. Roberts argues that the UCLES scheme of qualifications implies that 'theoretical input in ITE courses can be weighted relatively lightly as compared with later in the teaching career when teachers have the experience to make sense of it' (Roberts, 1998: 83). Indeed, the notion of a novice teacher's 'hierarchy of needs' or stages of teaching is consistent with both the CELTA and CertTESOL philosophy, which seeks to serve the *initial* needs of novice teachers by instilling survival skills and the 'what' of language teaching. However, short-term courses, such as these, assume little responsibility for the other crucial stages of teacher development nor for the essential element of examining each CP's apprenticeship of observation. It is left to the CP and to his/her potential employer to facilitate the CP's advancement beyond the initial 'basic skills' stage of teacher education. However, as England (1998) has pointed out, few employers, particularly in the field of EFL, provide the professional development novice teachers require. And it is widely acknowledged that only a very low percentage of CPs go on to complete a Diploma course or an MA (see Roberts, 1998: 208), indicating that few individuals complete anything beyond a basic skills course, at least in a formal sense.

That said, a four week course, arguably, cannot be very ambitious in the content it includes in its timetable. Factors including high stress level due to heavy workload and limited time frame mean that course providers must be frugal in terms of course content. Inevitably, this translates to a focus in the TESOL Certificate course on practical elements of teaching with the understanding that theoretical underpinnings, will come later, either at a CP's place of employment or on the diploma course, if the CP goes on to complete it. One course tutor at AU clearly stated this rationale,

> ...we start to treat it [theory] towards the end of things, obviously at this stage people don't have much of a, um, of a need to put into practice comparative theoretical models of language acquisition. It's something that we do in a lot more depth at the diploma level...It's [the Cert course] a skills building course, and once they've applied those skills and have got some experience in the field in various

kinds of posts, they can then start to make more sense of the theoretical frameworks involved in language acquisition. (Course Tutor, Interview, July 6, 2005)

One of the critical problems with the short-term course is, then, that it is too brief to progress beyond a basic skills course and passes the buck when it comes to further teacher development, providing only cursory theoretical input that is, first, founded on the notion of theory as generalized research and, second, largely disconnected from the rest of the course. Chris Kennedy's (1989) interview between the editor, two staff, and three teachers from The Centre for British Teachers offers insight into the problems associated with this outlook. Kennedy himself notes,

> There seems very much a move towards 'the practical', which is good in some ways; in other ways it's dangerous too...that if our profession says that it only need practical courses, then it might lower its status...It really is a question of how you teach theory, and which bits of it you are going to use. Take vocabulary, for instance. Unless people have got some idea of the appropriate theories in semantics, they are not going to come up with any principled ideas for better ways of teaching vocabulary. You're just left with random techniques. (Kennedy, 1989: 130)

What then is to be done? If theory should be included in language teacher education, how can it be integrated with practice, particularly in the face of skeptical teacher trainees? Karen Johnson (2006) suggests that teachers and teachers-in-training reject more theoretical components of their teacher training due to belief that theory is disconnected with real teaching, as it is in the short-term TESOL Certificate course. As Chapter 2.2.1 argued, current, prevailing notions of theory lead both language teacher trainees and educators to assume that acquisition of theory requires advanced critical skills lacking in novice teachers and to ignore the personal theories upon which novice teachers' teaching is essentially based. While one might argue convincingly that conducting scholarly research is indeed beyond novice teachers' capacity, one cannot deny that the 'social, cultural, economic, and educational contexts' (Johnson, 1996b: 766) of language classrooms create daily decisions for novice teachers, who need to be given the tools to make informed decisions based on personal and conceptual theories which have been and can, in the future, be examined and critiqued in the light of such contexts.

Johnson (2006) notes that traditional L2 teacher education must move forward by 'creating opportunities for L2 teachers to make sense of those theories [from research and otherwise] in their professional lives and the settings where they work' (Johnson, 2006: 240). To do this, Johnson and others (see Clarke, 1983; Freeman, 1989; Richards, 1990; Williams, 1999) use Freire's (1970) construct of praxis, the process of

viewing teaching experience through the lens of theoretical knowledge. They argue that the way forward is not a debate about whether or not language teachers should study theories of SLA, for example, but rather, how teachers can become 'active users and producers of theory in their own right' (Johnson, 2006: 240). In other words, discussion of theory should always be 'cloaked' in a discussion of real classroom situations and how a certain research-based or personal theory does or does not provide insight into classroom decision making in a particular setting. Even on a short-term course, this synthesis between practice and theory, or praxis, is at least somewhat achievable insofar as tutors create an environment where CPs explore their own classroom decisions, their students' learning, etc. in light of presented research cases and personal theories. At present, this is simply not done on most short-term TESOL training courses, and this has to change.

What is the role of theory in short-term teacher education then? Synthesizing Karen Johnson's notion of praxis and Freeman's hierarchy of needs, the short-term course should seek to downplay the dichotomy between theory and practice and introduce basic language learning theory in light of real classroom situations (see Richards, 1999; Williams, 1999). This must be accomplished without overwhelming novice teachers with the 'why' before the 'what' or 'how'. Some have suggested the frameworks of reflective practice and action research as means of 'investigating the professional world' (Richards, 1999: 21). In these and other ways, teachers can become comfortable confronting their own and others' theories and seeing their use in the classroom. This notion will be further developed in the final chapter of this thesis, where the inclusion of both guided reflective practice and action research are suggested as improvements to initial teacher education courses.

9.3: The Teaching Practice Journal: Can Reflective Practice Be Forced?

Another issue at the forefront of teacher education is the notion of reflective practice. A view of the teacher as a reflective practitioner has been gaining in popularity with teacher educators since the 1980's, beginning with Lortie's (1975) notions of the apprenticeshop of observation. Further, reflective practice has been seen as a means of encouraging pre-service teacher development (see Chapter 2.1). However, the

implementation of reflective practice in pre-service teacher education has been quite varied, sometimes taking the form of a teaching practice journal, an autobiography documenting a CP's language learning experience, an essay, or a group discussion with peers or tutors. While UCLES CELTA does not require a specific form of reflective practice, leaving it up to the individual provider to specify the format, Trinity CertTESOL requires a journal with the rationale that successful CPs will thus exhibit 'the potential to assess their own strengths and weaknesses in order to benefit from further training and assist in the evaluation of their peers' (TCL, 2006b: 19). As Moran and Dallat, (1995: 21) note, reflection makes the teacher less impulsive and more deliberate.

There can be no doubt that reflective practice, when conducted with sincerity and thoroughness, can be a powerful tool in enabling teachers, both novice and experienced, to examine critically their preconceptions about teaching and how they have affected classroom decisions. This process is critical if teachers are to begin to explore the options for change and transformation of behavior (Head & Taylor, 1997; de Sonneville, 2007). However, there is some question as to whether or not reflective practice can, in fact, be a required component of a course as it is by Trinity's CertTESOL course. As the literature suggests, being critically self-aware is an acquired skill that comes with experience and great intellect (Moran & Dallat, 1995; Hockly, 2000). Further, imposing reflective practice on pre-service trainees is questionable and may be self-defeating because it tends to provoke a negative response from individuals who feel uncomfortable being honest and self-critical in the context of evaluation.

9.3.1 An overview of the TP journal assignment

The TP Journal assignment in the Trinity CertTESOL course is designed to prompt CPs to engage in reflective practice. In its validation guidelines, Trinity College London (2006b: 21) specifies what this assignment must include (see Table 9.4). For AU's CertTESOL course, these guidelines translate to very detailed pro-formas for each journal entry, which CP's are required to complete both before and after teaching each lesson. Each lesson's set contains different questions, asking CPs to focus on different aspects of their teaching, such as instructions, classroom management, or effectiveness of materials (see Table 9.5). In this way, CPs are guided to be reflective in specific ways about their teaching.

The inclusion of all lesson plans, materials, and feedback pro-formas is designed to allow the tutors to view journal entries and lesson plans and materials simultaneously. In addition, it gives CPs an organized and thorough record of their teaching practice both for future reference and, hopefully, as a way of engaging in ongoing development throughout the course. However, certain problems inherent in the journal's design raised questions regarding the validity of this form of obligatory reflective practice.

a. list of contents of the journal
b. all pro formas used and completed for lesson planning, self- and tutor-evaluation
c. lesson plans for all lessons observed and assessed, set out in chronological order, and including as a minimum brief references to the following:
    1 student context (numbers, age, educational and/or professional level, purpose learning English, level of English, first language)
    2 level of this class or learner
    3 aims of the lesson, with learning outcomes
    4 how aims will be achieved through content, methodology, materials, etc.
    5 timing of stages
    6 use of materials
    7 anticipated problems
    8 means of assessing learning outcomes
d. self-evaluation and tutor evaluation
e. a summary of the overall experience to reflect the trainees' professional evaluation of this component and their own progress: this must be a considered statement that goes beyond a simple comment on the trainees' personal difficulties.

Table 9.4: The TP Journal contents

No.	Examples of TP Journal Questions/ Prompts
1	What are your objectives in this lesson?
2	How are the stages of the whole lesson linked together to meet overall objectives?
3	What is the single most important point you learned about each of this: yourself as a teacher, your learners, classroom teaching?
4	Summarize the main things you have learned about classroom language from this lesson and the discussion with the tutor.
5	What if anything would you change about this lesson and how?
6	What parts were you particularly pleased with and why?
7	What did you most enjoy about teaching this lesson?
8	What parts were you less happy about and why?
9	Summarize the effectiveness of your instructions in this lesson...
10	Comment on your personal development as a teacher during this course. What are the 2 most valuable lessons you have learned during your teaching experiences here?

Table 9.5: Examples of TP Journal questions/ prompts

9.3.2 Problems with the TP journal

This section will examine what the data revealed about problems inherent in the TP Journal. These include the nature of the writing prompts and strategic and expedient CP response, negative attitudes towards the TP Journal, and the assignment's propensity to promote simulated response rather than real reflection.

9.3.2.1 Leading and repetitive writing prompts and strategic response

Pecheone et al. (2005) aptly note a common methodological limitation of using reflective assignments for assessment purposes. They write,

> The reliability of artifacts from the portfolio assessment alone as evidence of teacher learning is questionable because teachers know they will be evaluated on the basis of these artifacts for their 'reflectivity'. (Pecheone et al., 2005: 166)

Knowing that increased evidence of reflection will achieve a better response from tutors, CPs are tempted to write strategic rather than frank journal entries. Roberts (1998) elaborates on the cause for strategic reflection, noting that it stems from the use of reflective practice as a form of assessment. 'Assessment demands the meeting of external requirements and the disguise of personal weaknesses; neither condition is productive of reflection on aspects of self in need of change' (Roberts, 1998: 59).

So before any discussion takes place surrounding the form that reflective practice assignments take, it seems that obligatory reflective practice used as a primary assessment tool is already a lost cause. However, on top of potential pressure to write 'display journal entries' to please course tutors, the structure of a particular reflective practice assignment can compound the problem where writing prompts suggest a preferred answer. As some of the examples from the journal questions demonstrate (see Table 9.5), the guidance that the AU TP Journal offered also often acted in this way, as a prompt for a certain answer, leading the CP to describe his/her lesson a certain way even if the lesson was not this way.

The first example of this comes at the beginning of AU's TP Journal, where, before any reflection on individual lessons occurs, CPs must complete two 'observation' pages after each of two nights of observing an 'experienced' teacher (see Appendix G, Extract 1). The final set of prompts for each observation journal entry requires CPs to engage in group discussion of their observations and then respond to a prompt asking whether or not each CP's observations coincided with those of other CPs. However, as

with other assignments requiring collaboration, most CPs wrote something like 'Yes, we all agreed' without really discussing it with anyone else (FN, July 29, 2005).

Further examples of leading prompts eliciting strategic entries occur throughout the journal. After the initial 'observation pages', the TP Journal assignment requires each CP to write about each lesson before and after it takes place. For example, one prompt requires CPs to discuss briefly how each activity built on the previous one and/or prepared for the next. While certainly if a CP's activities were completely disjointed, s/he might go back and make their lesson more cohesive and then complete the journal, it seemed tempting to describe one's lesson as being well-connected even if it were not. For example, both Laura and Carl both expressed dislike of writing lesson plans because they felt that a lesson should progress naturally and spontaneously, driven by student-initiated questions and responses rather than teacher-imposed activities. Nevertheless, some of their journal entries describe lessons that were planned in great detail, even though their practice teaching was quite different. Other CPs' journal entries exhibited a discrepancy between the actual lesson and the journal description. When asked to summarize his progress as a teacher, one CP wrote that he had remedied the problems (i.e. getting students' attention) noted by the observing tutors (Matthew, 5th Journal Entry). However, based on my observations of his teaching, his final lessons hardly seemed different from his first in this respect, and although he may have been measuring against a different standard than my own, he seemed frustrated in his final lessons by student disruption and difficulty in getting their attention.

In addition to the often strategic journal entries, inconsistencies within the CPs' journal entries also suggest that the journal's format was somewhat leading. Rebecca's journal entries, for example, show clear inconsistencies stemming partly from the format of the journal prompts (see Table 9.6). Her entries for lesson five are the most telling in that she makes two opposing statements in the same journal entry, commenting both on the weakness of her instructions and later on the fact that she has no problem giving instructions. The journal's format seems to lead her to do this because the prompt asks her to summarize her progress as a teacher, requiring her to show some evidence of progress, perhaps particularly in the areas seen as consistent problem areas by the observing tutors.

Not all of the CPs' TP Journals displayed such inconsistencies: some showed evidence of genuine reflection. John's and Kate's journals, in particular, were far removed from the formulaic style of many of the other CPs, and John's comments about

staying up late at night to finish his journal reinforce the notion that he was taking this assignment seriously. However, the suggestive but also repetitive nature of the questions struck a chord with all of the CPs at some point, who expressed frustration with written comments like, 'I already answered that' or 'See previous question'. This was perhaps due to some questions being repeated in every entry, i.e. Lesson Three: 'In retrospect, is there anything you would do differently regarding the material used in this lesson?' followed by 'What, if anything, would you change about this lesson – and how?' The ensuing negative attitude towards the TP journal, while perhaps stemming in part from the structure of the journal, largely limited the effectiveness of this assignment in reflective practice and will be explored in the next section.

Journal Prompt	Journal Entry
Lesson #3: What, if any, further modifications might you make to the lesson plan or execution in the light of your discussions [with the observing tutor]?	'Need to improve on instructions…'
Lesson #4: In note form, list the personal strengths you can build on in future lessons.	Listed her best personal strength as 'Clear instructions'
Lesson #5: - What was most instructive about tutor feedback? - Summarize the assessment of your progress as a teacher.	'I still need to work on my instructions' 'Instructions – slowed down considerably – no problem there now'

Table 9.6: Rebecca's inconsistent journal entries

9.3.2.2 Negative attitudes towards the TP journal

The literature on reflective practice suggests that a negative attitude towards required reflection in the context of teacher education is quite common. Smith and Lev-Ari (2005), after conducting research on the Practicum component of pre-service teacher education, found that only a third of the 480 student teachers who participated in their research found the reflective teaching journal assignment to be effective. Roberts writes that initial teacher education participants often adopt a negative attitude towards reflective assignments because they view them as 'imposed course requirements, with no real meaning for themselves' (Roberts, 1998: 59).

As previously discussed, comments from the CPs during the course indicated that they often adopted a strategic rather than frank outlook towards the journal, leading them to make points in their journal that were not altogether accurate. In addition to this

lack of frankness, all of the CPs expressed negative attitudes towards the TP journal. The experienced teachers seemed to resent obligatory reflection on their teaching, and the CPs with no teaching experience felt that filling out all the forms was a waste of time. At one point, one of the CPs offered 'to give people lessons in sort of blabbety blah...' (Carl, AR, July 19, 2005), suggesting that he was not taking the journal seriously. That same day, he noted that he had resorted to a formula which he followed every time (FN, July 19, 2005). A conversation between two of the experienced teachers demonstrates this dislike for the TP Journal.

> Laura: Yeah, he did, and I didn't see the point of filling out all those bits of paper though so I sort of told him I had given him an edited version [of the TP Journal] and left bits out.
> Carl: yeah, it's ideal, because we're already teachers really – the two of us
> Laura: Oh, gosh, Yeah, cause what do we need with all these bits of paper? XXX we have years and years of classes, and so I feel badly writing all this out. (Audio Recording, July 22, 2005)

When asked about his approach to completing the teaching journal, one of the non-teachers said that he didn't write much, that for 'Some of them it's just like a line... [Sometimes I] just leave it blank. Can't say I care about this' (Matthew, AR, July 15, 2005). In fact, he left blank whole sections of the TP journal as did several other CPs, starting sentences without completing their thoughts, and generally repeating similar ideas using slightly different wording.

Trainee teachers' negative attitude towards reflective practice is often confined to assignments like portfolios and reflective diaries (Smith & Lev-Ari, 2005). Initial teacher trainees often remark positively on other forms of reflective practice like feedback sessions involving more open-ended discussion between trainee teacher and supervisor. Smith and Lev-Ari point out that reflective practice in the form of dialogue provides the support and interaction with more experienced teachers that trainee teachers crave. On the other hand, assignments like a portfolio or a TP journal are self-contained activities with written response from the course tutors often coming only at the end of the course.

In the case of the AU CertTESOL course, none of the data shows evidence of positive feelings towards the feedback sessions; however, the absence of negative comments may be some indication that this form of reflective practice was viewed more favorably than the written assignment. In any case, the negative attitude towards the TP journal heavily limited its effectiveness as the course's primary tool of reflective practice.

9.3.2.3 Reflection or just restatement of existing ideas?

Previous sub-sections have outlined weaknesses inherent in reflective practice assignments like AU's TP Journal. However, apart from these, a fundamental issue related to the effectiveness of a reflective practice assignment in initial teacher education is whether or not trainees are actually engaging in reflection or just restating pre-existing ideas. Further, is reflection an overly-ambitious goal for novice teacher trainees? Much of the literature on novice teachers' reflective practice has revealed that, in fact, many pre-service teachers-in-training are not engaging in reflection but rather restating and reinforcing what they already believe without much critical examination. Moore and Ash note,

> many new teachers choose not to reflect on their practice constructively and critically, preferring to fall back on pre-conceived understandings of how they and their pupils should conduct themselves in the classroom. (Moore & Ash, 2002: 1)

Roberts (1998: 58-59) argues a similar point, noting that many novice teachers have not yet examined their own personal theories of teaching and learning and that reflection on 'borrowed' routines requires a depth of understanding that novice teachers just don't have.

As indicated previously, some of the CPs at AU, John, Kate, and Amber, seemed to take the TP Journal seriously, striving to engage in genuine reflection. However, their entries contain little evidence of new ideas, instead serving as opportunities to elaborate further on pre-existing ideas expressed at the beginning of the course. Table 9.7 offers comparisons between statements made at the beginning of the course and journal entries towards the end. Excerpts from other CPs' journal entries indicate similar restatement of pre-existing ideas about learning and teaching. But as the other CPs' statements indicated that they weren't taking the TP Journal seriously and weren't writing frank entries, their journals don't necessarily serve as evidence one way or the other.

Reflecting on Von Wright's 1997 study on teacher beliefs, Borg (2002) argues,

> [trainee teachers'] implicit beliefs are often incoherent and are more difficult to change than the explicit expectations. Von Wright argued that, in the traditionally additive approach to teacher education, implicit beliefs are often not problematised and the inconsistencies between the beliefs the students may hold and what is presented to them are not explored. (Borg, 2002: 90)

Because CPs' reflective practice assignments are not constantly reviewed and are produced independently from any course tutor input, the TP Journal provided opportunity for CPs to express views they already held.

CP	Values about Teaching	On-Course Statements	Final Journal Entries (TP Journal, 7LE)
John	The importance of interesting materials	Regularly stated the importance of interaction and interesting and relevant materials	'I want to be a teacher who stimulates students with relevant, authentic and contemporary materials'.
Amber	Making it interesting and fun	Described her most admired teacher as one who is able to make the students 'spellbound' (AR, July 7, 2005)	'I want to be an enthusiastic teacher who gets students involved in the lesson and keeps their attention by making things interesting – I think students learn more that way'.
Kate	Student-Centred	'I think I just left out feedback at the end, cause I just, they were really into it'. (AR, July 9, 2005)	'Most of the information/learning can be generated by the students'.
	Making it interesting and fun	'Make it fun and entertaining'. (AR, July 8, 2005)	'.A key element…is being in control of the classroom situation and being knowledgeable about the subject you are going to teach, representing it in a way that will interest and engage the students…'

Table 9.7: Journal entries restating existing beliefs

Further, these views were never compared against those of an experienced teacher nor challenged in light of the teaching practice. Here, perhaps, one could argue that the leading prompts guided them to challenge their own beliefs. However, this did not seem to be the case since neither John's, Kate's, nor Amber's journal entries contained evidence of a shift in thinking nor a questioning of their own beliefs (see Chapter 10). Instead, the reflective practice required by the TP Journal assignment at AU seemed to strengthen the pre-existing beliefs of the CPs who took it seriously.

9.4: The Role of Language Awareness in the Practicum

The inclusion of language awareness components in ELT teacher education courses is hardly disputed (see Ferguson, 2002; Andrews, 2003, 2006; Bolitho et al., 2003). Hedgcock (2002), for example, discusses the importance of teachers' explicit knowledge about language, noting,

> the field demands of them [ELT teachers] a working mastery of their target language and an awareness of the symbolic forms transacted within the TL discipline. In other words, becoming a teacher entails acquainting oneself with the knowledge, practices, and codes of related communities that intersect with the LT discipline, namely, fellow educators, applied linguists, grammarians, rhetoricians, psychologists, and other experts. (Hedgcock, 2002: 305)

Attaining this working mastery is no small feat and one certainly not achieved by the majority of CPs on short-term courses, where the language awareness content is cursory at best. O'Donoghue and Hales' examination of past and current models of language awareness components on short-term teacher education courses argues that to a large extent, trainees are simply asked to acquire and show evidence of a tidy set of facts 'pertaining to a limited variety of a language' (O'Donoghue & Hales, 2002: 176). They argue for movement beyond a transfer approach to language awareness to an examination of authentic uses of language, including discoursal features. Others have argued for a similar treatment of language awareness in teacher education that produces critical language analysts and explorers (Bolitho et al., 2003; Graddol, 2006).

Unfortunately, such arguments have not yet trickled down into intial language teacher education. At present, the four-week course is still dominated by 'the analysis of the verb phrase in the context of a P-P-P lesson' (Kerr, 1994: 1), mainly because of lack of time to move beyond a basic skills course in language awareness. The hope is that during their careers, trainees will expand their knowledge of language through classroom teaching experience and professional development.

The CPs at AU were aware of their lack of explicit knowledge about English. After several CPs expressed anxiety at their limited knowledge of English grammar, one of the tutors pointed out that they shouldn't worry about remembering what they had learned in the language awareness module because one could always find answers in a grammar reference book (Course Tutor, Input Session, July 2, 2005). Richards, Ho, and Giblin's (1996) study reveals that this anxiety about lack of language awareness and tutors' short-term solutions to these concerns are common on short-term teacher training courses. In their study, the authors note that a course tutor offered the following quite common advice: 'So if you don't know how to describe it [the past participle], just give them the correct answer' (Richards, Ho & Giblin, 1996: 248).

But is this all there is? Can we assume, as the short course seems to, that this knowledge will come with time and that thorough presentation and mastery of language awareness is both unnecessary and ill-timed on a short course? Andrews' (2006) study examining the evolution of teachers' language awareness concludes that such knowledge does *not* come with time. Having collected data from teachers prior to and ten years after their initial teacher education, he writes, 'It is clearly not the case that years of experience of teaching grammar necessarily lead to expertise' (Andrews, 2006: 15). Andrews concludes that unless teachers are given the analytical tools necessary to

expand their knowledge, change in teacher cognition in grammatical knowledge and beliefs about grammatical teaching is unlikely to occur.

Interestingly, one of the primary arguments in favor of the short course is that it meets novice teachers' early teaching needs, providing them with the *what* of teaching, the first stage in Freeman's (1989) hierarchy of noive teachers' needs of (see also Schön, 1983; Worthy, 2005). However, again, it seems that the acquisition of technical knowledge is confined to the acquisition of basic teaching skills and techniques rather than an understanding of how language is structured, learned, and produced. In fact, those 'high up' in the Trinity and UCLES administration argued at a recent conference (QuiTE, 2006) that typical native speaker course completers are lacking in what one individual termed the ability to 'speak and write, clearly and articulately'. This description seemed well-suited to some of the CPs at AU, several of whom struggled repeatedly to provide simple grammar explanations to students and whose frequent incorrect spelling during teaching was commented on by several of the tutors.

In conclusion then, explicit language awareness is crucial in ITE, a fact acknowledged even by both UCLES and Trinity College, who need to reconsider the way language awareness content is typically structured, delivered, and assessed on the short-term course. Given the CPs' at AU lack of explicit knowledge about language, evidenced by observation of their teaching as well as their own statements, the present system does not provide enough input nor does it ensure that the input already there is internalized.

9.5: Evaluation of the Practicum Component: Did It Achieve Its Purpose?

As laid out in previous chapters (see especially 8.6) as well as in the first sub-section of this chapter, the Practicum at AU was intended to provide opportunity for CPs to exhibit what they have learned, namely, the teaching skills and techniques acquired on the course. This is consistent with a performance-based philosophy of teacher education, which views teaching as acquisition of overt behaviors. As Chapter 10 will explore, the data suggests that, in fact, little change occurred, even in teaching behavior. This supports the conclusion that perhaps the Practicum component did not achieve its purpose at AU. That said, my impressions, subsequently confirmed by a tutor's 'off the

cuff' remark, was that the Practicum was assessed mainly in an informal, general fashion. A field notes entry reveals my theory:

> It seems, at present, that the tutors are only relying on their gut instinct in regards to how well everyone is 'performing' in the teaching practice. I haven't been able to locate any assessment rubric for this component, and the only evaluation that's written down is the '3 positives, 3 negatives' on each feedback form. What's going on here? (FN, July 11, 2005)

In the months after the course, a course tutor e-mailed me a newly-created set of teaching practice assessment criteria, which includes such specifics as:

- **lesson plan:** appropriacy of objectives and the activities chosen to help achieve them. Realistic estimation of timing
- **learning outcomes:** the amount of learning and useful language /skills development which takes place in the trainee's lesson
- **classroom procedures:** classroom management; classroom language; teacher qualities (establishment of rapport; eye-contact; appropriate authority; response to learners)
- **reflection on teaching:** the amount of insight shown by trainees in feedback, and their general receptiveness to comment

These criteria, likely a well-intended attempt to improve the course's rigor, nevertheless speak to a notion of teacher training as acquisition of observable skills and techniques.

It is unclear, ultimately, whether the explicitly stated goal of the Practicum was fully met. But a further issue remains regarding whether or not such a purpose is sufficient. Perry and Power (2004) argue that there is too often the missing link of inquiry in practical teaching experience, which should provide opportunity for

> clarification of personal teaching theories; exploration of sense of self as teacher; and the development of awareness of and appreciation for inquiry, reflection, action and change as important components of the role of teacher. (Perry & Power, 2004: 129)

Other writers in the literature on both general and ELT teacher education concur (see Roberts, 1998; Hutchinson & Martin, 1999; Whitehead et al., 1999) on the importance of challenging, mitigating, and reconstructing prior beliefs and images (Kagan, 1992: 142).

Some attempts are made in the CertTESOL course to promote these vital elements, evidenced by the required reflective practice journal assignment and feedback sessions. However, the performance-based rationale for the inclusion of a Practicum component is not enough. Instead, it needs to be bolstered by an element of personal inquiry into CPs' beliefs and experiences coupled with at least the beginnings of the construction of CPs' professional identity.

Chapter 10: The Impact of the Short-term Course: Evidence of Change

This chapter seeks to answer a key research question: How do short-term teacher trainees change, if at all, during the short TESOL Certificate course? Previous chapters provided details involving the nature of the short course and the specific setting where data collection took place. This chapter begins with a brief discussion of the nature of change and an examination of the literature on novice teachers. The factors affecting change on the short course will then be presented followed by a discussion of the development of each CP in the areas of classroom behavior during the Practicum; beliefs, attitudes, and philosophies about teaching; knowledge about teaching; and self-perception. Finally, this section will examine long-term change in attitudes and beliefs using data gathered primarily from informal interviews with experienced teachers in the ELT field and limited data from the AU CPs, some of whom remained in contact with me in the year following the course.

10.1: The Nature of Change

The notion of 'change' is complex, raising questions regarding not only what constitutes change but at what level change becomes significant. The present literature on teacher change provides a wealth of perspectives regarding the nature of teacher change. Fullan (2001), for example, provides a general model of educational change, composed of three phases, which are as follows:

1. **initiation**: the process that leads up to and includes a decision to adopt a new idea
2. **implementation**: the first experiences of attempting to put a new idea into practice
3. **continuation**: whether or not the change become permanent (as an ongoing part of the system) or atrophies/is rejected and excluded from the system

Fullan stresses that the most salient feature of change is that the estimated time leading up to the first phase and the time between phases cannot really be determined. He argues that 'even moderately complex changes take from 3 to 5 years...[and] change is a process, not an event' (Fullan, 2001: 52).

This notion of change as a complex and gradual process is echoed by the majority of the literature on change (see Guskey, 1986; Hopkins et al., 1994; Flores,

2005). However, some disagree on the matter of change in beliefs and, more specifically, whether or not this particular type of change precedes or follows change in behavior. Guskey (1986), for example, asserts that change in behavior precedes change in belief, which occurs because of the effects of new behavior on student learning outcomes (see Figure 3.). He argues, essentially, that as a new practice or technique results in increased student learning, a teacher is inclined to change his/her beliefs about teaching based on the experiential evidence. Therefore, 'change is a learning process that is developmental and primarily experientially based' (Guskey, 1986: 7).
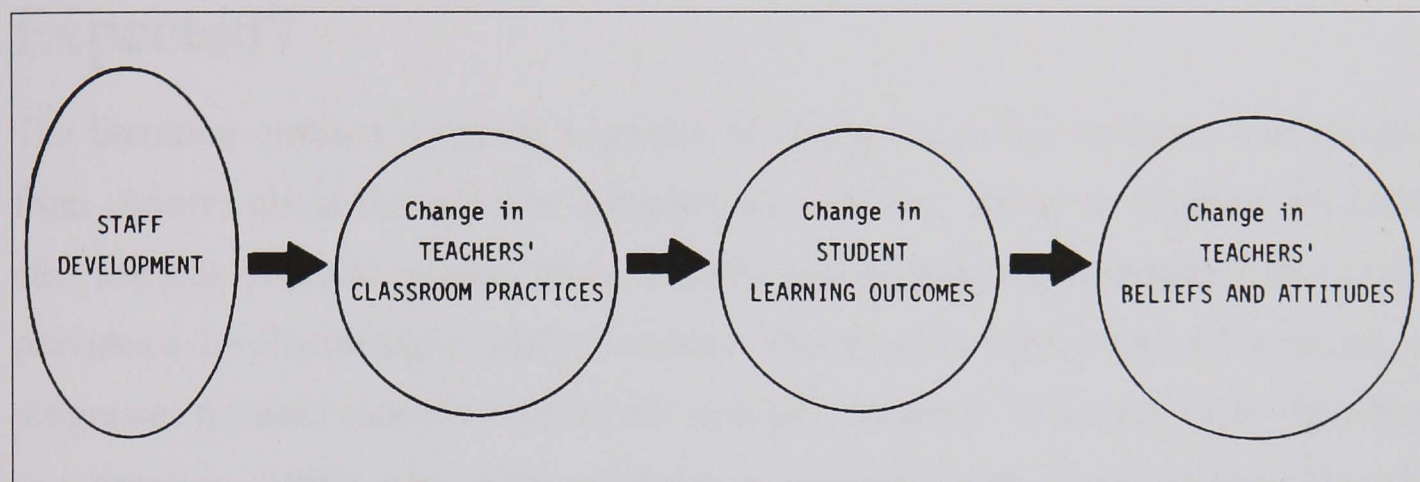
Figure 3: Guskey's (1986: 7) model of the process of teacher change

Davis' (1990) study of the four-week CTEFLA course seems tentatively to agree with Guskey, although he warns there is no guarantee that these changes represent genuine modifications in beliefs or that such changes will be permanent (Davis, 1990: 14). His point is consistent with Fullen's 3-phase model and stresses that the final phase, *continuation*, may or may not occur and that, essentially, change in behavior does not necessarily result in change in belief.

Despite Guskey's argument, somewhat supported by Davis, many disagree. Richards (1998), for example, argues that a change in ideas, values, principles or beliefs necessarily precedes changes in classroom practice. Flores (2005) agrees, citing Richardson and Placier (2001), who explain that the contrasting viewpoints on the nature of the relationship between belief and behavior change stem from a 'traditionalist' versus a 'naturalistic' perspective of change. In the former, teachers are asked to change their practice; in the latter, change is voluntary. Flores concludes that 'the process of changing (personal) beliefs and practices is interactive' (Flores, 2005: 390), a crucial point, which will be explored in the following sub-sections on CP change. In summary, the debate continues, and certainly will not be resolved here, although certain principles of teacher change are currently undisputed; namely, that change is complex and gradual (Bolster, 1983; Day, 1999). As Borg (2005) notes,

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trainees' development is not straightforward, often spanning a multifaceted range of change, partial change or adaptation, and resistance to change. In light of this debate, this chapter seeks to explore how short-term teacher trainees change (or do not change), primarily, as VanPatten (1997) writes, to gain insight into the impediments for change on short-term courses and indeed on all teacher education courses.

10.2: Novice Teachers and Change: What Can Be Expected?

The literature outlines a typical sequence of change in novice teachers, who progress from concern about the self (i.e. adequacy as a teacher, ability to maintain discipline, etc.) towards eventual concern about students and learning. For example, Fuller (1969) provides a developmental model of teachers' concerns that begins with self-concern and progresses towards concern with impact (see also Coates & Thoresen, 1976). Brookhart and Freeman (1992) note that confidence is generally high in novice teachers, who, fresh out of their teacher education courses, are primarily concerned with whether or not the students will listen to them, their ability to control the class, and how much the students would like them. They conclude,

> Entering teacher candidates view the nurturing and interpersonal aspects of a teacher's role as more important than the academic aspects, and entering teacher candidates view teaching as dispensing information (Brookhart & Freeman, 1992: 51)

Kennedy (1993) shares these findings, noting that novice teachers typically worry about lesson format (i.e. activities and tasks) rather than lesson content (or level of learning). Warford and Reeves (2003) reveal typical novice teachers' perspective on the ideal teacher, which consists of attributes like 'nurturing', 'entertaining', 'delegating', and 'being intuitive'. Indeed, the novice teacher is described throughout the literature as a fairly 'selfish' individual, concerned with procedures and likeability primarily.

Few studies exist that follow the transition from novice to experienced teacher, and even fewer exist in the ELT field. An exception is Green's (2005) study following 478 recent CELTA graduates and providing some data regarding how some CELTA graduates view their training in restrospect. However, this study provides no detail regarding teacher change, instead focusing on details such as employment since completing the course and opinions of the value and relevance of the course. Flores'

(2005) two-year study, on the other hand, following new teachers' change in their first years of teaching, offers findings consistent with the notion of progression from focus on self towards focus on the learner.

The pattern of change in older novice teachers, on the other hand, is quite different, as documented in Feiman-Nemser and Buchmann's (1986) study on the first year of teacher preparation. The authors note that older teachers-in-training tend to draw from personal experiences despite sometimes contradictory course input. Thus, age alone can be a powerful factor affecting and often inhibiting change. However, age is certainly not the only factor, and in the case of all teacher education, one's motivation for enrollment, attitudes towards the teacher education course, and structure of the course itself can influence level of change. The following section explores each of these in turn.

10.3: Factors Affecting Change

Several factors influencing CPs' propensity to change include the CPs' motivations for enrollment, attitudes towards the course, past learning and teaching experience, and the structure, objectives, and delivery of the course itself. These factors are important to this research as understanding of and adjustment to them may improve the impact of a teacher education course significantly. Suggestions for improvement, based on these factors, will be discussed in further detail in Chapter 11.

Factors relevant at this particular course provider cannot be assumed, however, to impact equally on other CPs at other providers. But as Gutierrez-Almarza (1996) aptly notes,

> student teachers' development during pre-service programmes cannot be attributed to one single influence. It is important to find out what particular experiences contribute, so that the learning process can be enhanced rather than hampered. More research is needed to explore these different, at times conflicting, influences in student teachers' practice. (Gutierrez-Almarza, 1996: 72)

That said, certain factors affecting change are typical of short-term TESOL Certificate courses in general, such as course objectives and delivery, which are currently standardized by UCLES CELTA and Trinity College. These factors, among others, influence to what extent participants will change teaching behavior, attitudes and beliefs, and conceptual knowledge about English language teaching. Figure 4 portrays the interplay between such factors and the trainees' course experience, suggesting that

all should be considered in course design. They set the stage for how CPs will view the course and which elements may be viewed as having greater importance. As Figure 4 demonstrates, CPs prioritize certain aspects of the course over others based on the aforementioned factors. These factors are examined briefly in the following sub-sections.
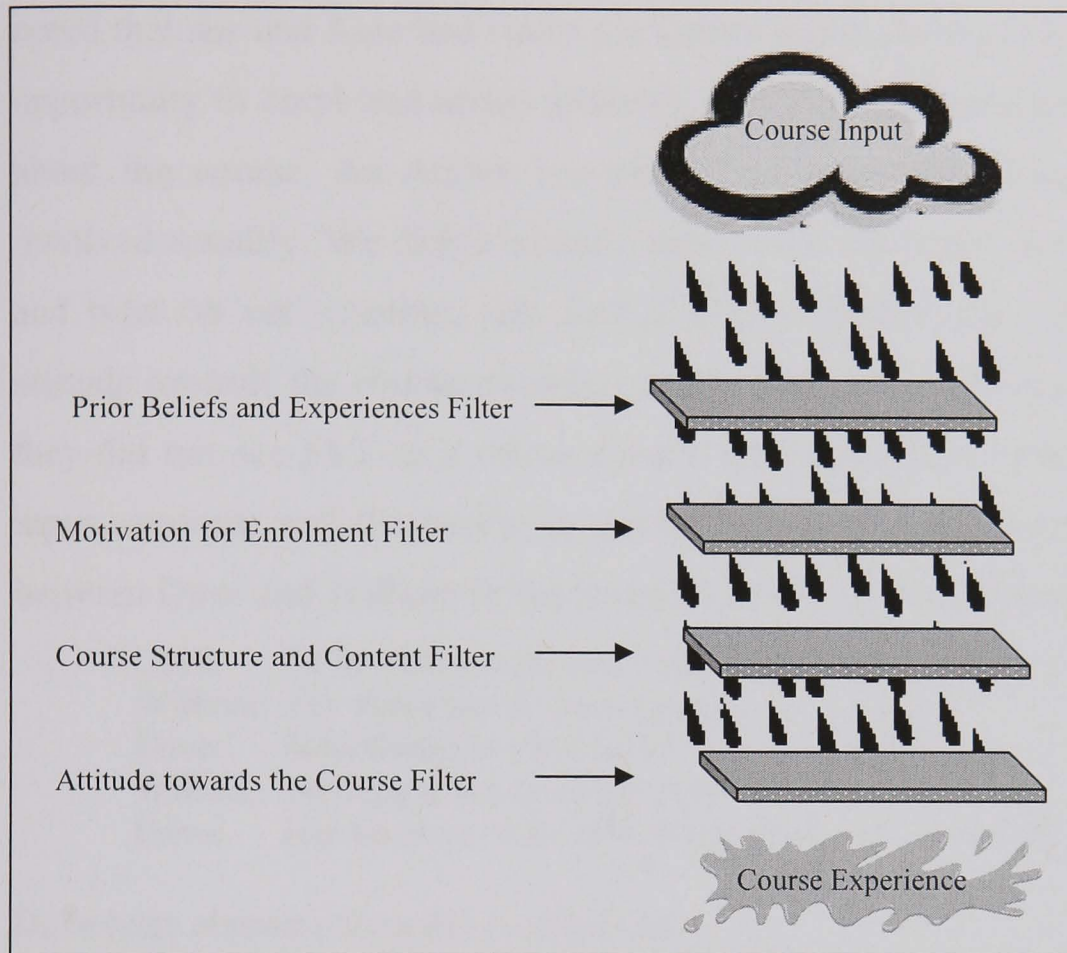
Figure 4: Factors filtering course content and affecting course experience

10.3.1 Motivations for enrolment

Chapter 9 (see 9.3.2) briefly detailed the particular motivations of the CPs at AU. However, they warrant further discussion since they had some influence on the CPs' experience on the course, namely, their attitude towards and receptivity to change.

Typically, the motivations for individuals who enroll on short-term ELT teacher training courses are different from those of individuals in other teaching careers. Brookhart and Freeman (1992) found, for example, that common motives for choosing a teaching career were service-oriented goals, such as helping others, helping children, and preparing for family life. On the other hand, most novice ELT teachers, when asked about their decision to enter ELT, gave responses such as 'I fell into it', 'out of the blue', 'into my lap', 'luck', 'haphazard', and 'in limbo', suggesting that the primary motivation for entering the field is based on 'chance' and short-term goals and that few

perceive ELT as a long-term career choice (Warford & Reeves, 2003: see also Roberts, 1998).

Thus, the enrolment motivations of the CPs at AU were typical. Four of the younger CPs, Amber, Dave, Matthew, and William, viewed ELT as a short-term career option, an opportunity to travel whilst they were still young and 'in limbo'. Amber noted that she and Kate had really not known much about the course at all. Instead, the opportunity to enrol had arisen suddenly, and they had enrolled without reading much about the course. As Amber remarked, 'We just didn't know about the workload involved actually. We didn't actually know a lot about the course. We just phoned up and went oh yes' (Amber, AR, July 3, 2005). Further, the CPs adopted a dismissive attitude towards the course stemming partly from their enrolment motivations. Because they did not see ELT as a career choice, their approach towards the assignments, the input sessions, and the course in general appeared fairly superficial. A conversation between Dave and William in the first days of the course reinforces this perspective:

Dave: To be honest with you, I haven't got a clue what I'm gonna do longterm
William: For about two or three years
Dave: Something for a few years
William: Nothing much more than that
Dave: Just keep out of trouble. What about you? (AR, July 3, 2005)

Dave later elaborated on his motivations:

In many ways, I underwent this ESOL training with a view to spending some time abroad, but not necessarily making a career out of it. Now that I've finished the course, I feel that the qualification will open a few doors for me, and even if I do little or no ESOL teaching in the future, it'll always look good on my CV. (Dave, FQ)

Carl and Donald's motivations were similar in that they enrolled to 'keep their options open' in light of impending retirement. Age is a significant variable related to motivation, and the fact that these CPs were close to retirement limits their likelihood of viewing ELT as a career option. For Carl and Donald, the fact that teaching ELT was only a possibility and one not in the immediate future impacted their experience while on the course. Evidence of this lies in their TP Journals, conversations and e-mails. When asked if he would consider further professional development, Donald noted, 'no real need as far as I can see' (Donald, FQ), elaborating by pointing out that his motivations were not very serious. He noted that during his interview with the moderator, it was all about 'playing the game' (Donald, AR, July 18, 2005). Carl, although less negative about the course, showed similar apathy for certain course

elements, which he described as a game where he simply offered up what the tutors wanted (i.e. in the TP Journal, etc.). He revealed in one telling conversation that he wasn't sure if he'd ever teach ELT.

The remaining CPs' motivations also impacted their course experience. Laura, for example, who had no intention of teaching ELT, seemed indifferent towards the course. She often remarked that she didn't understand the usefulness of most of the course content and that she had enrolled to gain exposure to non-native English speakers since she would shortly be teaching math in Zambia. John, Sharon, Rory, and Rebecca intended to teach ELT in the future, although only John and Rebecca planned to make ELT their sole career path. However, only John's experience seemed to be impacted positively by his motivations, causing him to maintain a perfect attendance record for input sessions and complete all assignments conscientiously. However, even he was negative at times, noting at one point that 'It's hard work, but most of it is pointless' (John, AR, July 28, 2005), indicating the complexity of the link between motivation for enrolment and experience on the course.

In summary, the influence of motivation for enrollment on course experience is complex since a variety of other factors are at work. For example, although each CP's attitude towards the course was influenced by their motivations for enrollment, this was not the only determining cause. For instance, despite Rebecca's intentions to make ELT into a long-term career, what would seem to be a powerful motivation to take the course seriously, she maintained a negative attitude towards the course. In this way, no straightforward causal link can be established between motivation for enrolment and participant experience on the course, although it appears to have a significant influence on CPs' propensity for change in attitude, behaviour, and belief.

10.3.2 Course structure and objectives

Kennedy (1993) notes that trainees quickly pick up on a teacher preparation course's philosophy about teacher education transmitted via course content and structure. The CertTESOL course relies on a performance-based teacher education philosophy, focusing primarily on practical teaching skills and techniques, a philosophy which affected each CP's course experience at AU. The prioritization of practice over theory (see Chapter 9) reinforced the CPs' bias toward practical skills without requiring much reflection on pre-existing attitudes and beliefs that influenced their teaching practice.

The course structure and objectives, therefore, inhibited change by allowing and encouraging CPs to prioritize practical teaching techniques over opportunities to explore their own attitude and beliefs and the theories that underpin them.

10.3.3 Attitudes towards the course

Britten (1988) notes that attitudes towards teacher education stem from deeply-rooted beliefs in a certain teaching methodology. He argues that these powerful beliefs cause trainees to adopt a certain stance towards different course components, seeing some as valuable and others as less so. Scarbrough (1976) elaborates on this relationship between beliefs and attitude, noting that ELT teachers' prioritization of practice over theory often results in a negative attitude towards theoretical components of a teacher training course. The attitudes of the CPs on the AU Certificate course will be explained briefly here and elaborated on more fully in the section on change in attitude (see 10.4.2.2).

Each CP's attitude towards the AU course appeared to have a considerable impact on his/her receptivity to any new ideas about teaching presented. For example, Rebecca, who was markedly negative towards the course, expressed a resistance to changing her teaching methodology. She even openly disagreed with comments made by the tutors who observed her teaching. In general, the CPs' attitudes ranged from positive towards the course and eager to learn, to somewhat apathetic or changeable from day to day, to quite negative towards the course. These attitudes seemed to be influenced by a variety of factors, such as stress level, workload, attitude of the dominant personalities of the group, and the preconceptions that each had about which course material was useful to learn and which was less so.

Without exception, the CPs maintained negativity towards the more theoretical input sessions and the language awareness components of the course (particularly the take-home exams) whilst maintaining a more positive attitude towards the practical input sessions and the teaching practice component. As Davis (1990) writes, preference for practicality is a feature of teachers in general, although a course providers' promotion of this 'encourages trainees to relegate such theoretical principles as are presented to the status of not immediately useful background knowledge' (Davis, 1990: 11). This preference, then, acted as a filter for the CPs at AU, who 'zoned out' during more theoretical input sessions and seemed to ignore any content presented therein.

In summary, the influence of CP attitude on course experience is another relevant consideration for course design and implementation. As will be discussed in the sub-section on change in attitude (see 10.4.2.2), negativity towards certain course components has the ability to filter and limit the impact of the course on a particular CP.

10.3.4 The 'apprenticeship of observation' and prior teaching experience

Teaching is an unusual profession in that prior to an individual's adopting it as a career, s/he has already spent thousands of hours as a student and therefore arrives into the profession with already established beliefs about what constitutes good/bad teaching (see Chapter 2). This 'apprenticeship of observation' influences a teacher's professional development, since these pre-established beliefs may often stand in opposition to what course tutors teach about the nature of effective language teaching. As Borg writes,

> One of the consequences…is that, whereas people entering other professions are more likely to be aware of the limitations of their knowledge, student teachers may fail to realize that the aspects of teaching which they perceived as students represented only a partial view of the teacher's job. (Borg, 2005: 274)

The data suggests that the CPs at AU apparently changed their beliefs very little, with only one CP showing any clear evidence of a rejection of past beliefs in favor of new ideas. Da Silva (2005) writes that this lack of change is common in teacher education (and certainly short-term teacher education), noting that many pre-service teachers use teacher education courses to confirm their pre-existing beliefs, ignoring any concepts contrary to what they already hold to be true. Details of the change in the CPs' beliefs, or lack thereof, due to their apprenticeship of observation, will be discussed in a subsequent sub-section (see 10.4.2) but deserves mentioning as an importance influence on the experience of teachers-in-training.

Although all CPs arrived with their own 'participant observation' experiences, some of the CPs had past teaching experience as well, some emerging from life-long teaching careers in other fields. This is not unusual. Green (2005) notes that 39% of the CELTA graduates he surveyed reported to have had some teaching experience before taking the CELTA. On the AU CertTESOL course, six of the twelve CPs had teaching experience, five of those with at least ten years' experience. The course tutors indicated that this was a typical demographic, due to many universities' willingness to pay for this type of training for their employees. The peculiarities of this demographic of short-term

teacher training CPs need to be understood, especially as past research has shown that trainees with teaching experience are perhaps the least likely to change. As Guskey writes, 'The instructional practices most veteran teachers employ are determined and fashioned to a large extent by their experiences in the classroom' (Guskey, 1986: 7), experiences which span often several decades and will often not be influenced by a few short teaching experiences on an ELT training course. One of AU's tutors offered the following summary of the patterns of change she has seen in experienced teachers on Certificate courses over the years:

> Speaking generally, people who are already teachers don't change. Um, they'll sometimes pay lip service to what we're saying, but you know full well that at the bottom, they haven't changed because they've been teaching a certain way for many years, and it's worked. Um, some, I mean, sometimes, exactly the opposite will happen, and they absolutely embrace all the new ideas with great enthusiasm and go back and use them in their teaching situation as well as take them on board for the new. And some never, never change. (Course Tutor, Interview, July 21, 2005)

In summary, then, both past teaching and learning experience influence an individual's proclivity to change and should be considered when designing a teacher education course.

10.4: Evidence of Change

This section will explore evidence of change in classroom behavior during the Practicum, in knowledge of teaching (i.e. techniques, activity types, etc.), in beliefs and attitudes, and in self-perception, all within the framework of a discussion of the literature on novice teachers. This section will then examine short-term vs. long-term change using data collected from several CPs over the year following the CertTESOL course and data from six experienced ELT teachers who completed a one-month ELT training course early in their career. Finally, this section will conclude with possible explanations for the limited change in beliefs, etc. exhibited by the AU CPs.

10.4.1 Evidence of change in teaching behavior during the Practicum

As Chapter 9.6 explored, the CertTESOL course objectives seem to suggest a focus on overt teacher behaviors or performance. In addition, elements of the TP Journal assignment and the structure of Practicum feedback sessions suggest a focus on

changing behavior rather than changing attitude or belief. For example, although the TP Journal prompts included questions like, 'What is the single most important point you learned about yourself as a teacher, your learners, and classroom teaching', the majority of questions focused on trainee behavior during the lesson, such as the effectiveness of instructions, the ways materials were used, and how the activities were connected (see Appendix G). The feedback forms emphasized this focus, the observing tutor generally noting specifics of teacher behavior and how these were successful or unsuccessful. As Brandt (2006) notes, this focus on changing behavior is not exclusive to AU nor even to TESOL Certificate courses. She warns, however, that 'emphasis on assessable performance [functions] at the expense of developmental practice' (Brandt, 2006: 355).

This is not to say that teacher behavior is unimportant. However, there is still some debate as to whether or not behavioral changes alone will last beyond teacher training. Although some writers like Guskey (1986) and Mewborn (2000) have argued that changes in performance can lead to changes in belief (the behavioral changes thus becoming more permanent), others state more convincingly that the key to influencing teachers' behavior is to change their basic beliefs, a process that requires time (see Freeman, 1993; Gatbonton, 1999; Fullan, 2001; Huznicker, 2004). The notion of belief change instigating behavior change is also supported in much of the literature on the apprenticeship of observation, which hinges on the fact that the reason teachers' behaviors are so resistant to change is because of deeply held, pre-existing beliefs.

All this said, examining the development of the AU CPs' teaching behavior over the four-week course is necessary. Despite the limitations of the short course, resulting in the likelihood that little change in behavior will occur, even a small shift in behavior may, in fact, point to a shift in belief. Behavior often serves as evidence for belief; as Schön argues, 'Our knowing is in our action' (Schön, 1983: 49). However, certain caveats are in order. Not all beliefs take the form of action, so examination of teacher behavior will never provide a complete picture of an individual's beliefs. In addition, the data strongly suggests that the CPs at AU engaged in strategic behaviour, suggesting that while they may have modified their behavior to suit the tutors, they were likely to behave more consistently with their beliefs after the course was over. Finally, whether or not it's realistic to expect significant change after only four or five weeks is debatable. However, illumination of the ways in which participants do or do not change, even on short courses, is crucial if we are to understand both the impediments for

change in teacher education and how change can be at least initiated, if not cemented, during teacher education.

10.4.1.1 Discussion of course participants with no change in behavior

Analysis of data collected in the form of field notes, personal journal entries, and tutor feedback forms points to little change in CP teaching behavior (see Table 10.1). Again, it's important to re-iterate that one can hardly expect evidence of significant change, even behavioral, in such a short span of time. However, discussion of the lack of change in behavior is included in order to provide a framework for the overarching discussion of the impediments of change.

Table 10.1 reveals the patterns of positive and negative feedback for specific behavior from the tutors. Ten of the eleven CPs show marked consistency in behavior recorded by the tutors and by the researcher from start to finish on the course. Although perhaps the subjective nature of the observation (with different tutors perhaps focusing on different elements of the lesson) may have influenced the points included on the feedback forms, the same points for each CP were re-iterated, pointing to very little behavioral change.

For example, Amber was consistently praised for good rapport (noted 4x), clear instructions (3x), and clear voice (3x). The tutors repeatedly noted her problem areas as being problems with grammatical explanations (3x), timing (2x), teacher-centredness (2x), and modeling (2x). In Carl's case, his main problem area was teacher-centredness, lecturing rather than providing opportunities for practice (noted 3x). His strengths were noted as good rapport (2x) and enjoyable lessons (3x). The other CPs showed similar patterns. Rebecca, for example, was repeatedly criticized for being too teacher-centred and focusing on presentation of grammar (3x) and speaking quickly and providing poor instructions (3x). Rory was noted as giving unclear instructions (3x) and using complex materials with no foreseeable aim (2x).

		Lesson 1	Lesson 2	Lesson 3	Lesson 4	Lesson 5
Amber Observed 3x by researcher	*Positive*	- good rapport -clear instructions - clear voice	- good rapport	- clear voice	- good rapport	- good rapport - clear instructions - clear voice
	Negative	-grammar explanations inaccurate - no modelling	- timing issues	-grammar points inaccurate -teacher-centred	- grammar explanations inaccurate - no modelling	- teacher-centred - timing issues
Kate Observed 1x by researcher	*Positive*	- well planned - good eliciting	- well planned - eliciting - good class management - friendly	- good class management - good rapport	- good class management - good rapport	- well planned - good class management - good rapport
	Negative	- presentation of lang. inaccurate	-poor instructions	- poor instructions	- poor instructions	- presentation confusing - poor instructions
Carl Observed 3x by researcher	*Positive*	- good rapport - made lesson enjoyable with humor and discussion	------------------	- friendly manner - tried to make lesson enjoyable	- Ss enjoyed activities	**LEFT OUT OF JOURNAL**
	Negative	- teacher-centred	- teacher-centred little student interaction	--------------------	- lecture-style	
Laura Observed 1x by researcher	*Positive*	- good rapport - repeated eliciting - feedback	- lively teaching style	- good rapport - feedback - management - monitoring	- lively - management - monitoring	- good rapport
	Negative	- lesson plan not followed	- teacher-centred	- lesson plan not followed - teacher-centred	--------------------	--------------------

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William Not observed by researcher	*Positive*	- confident - monitoring - good rapport	- confident - good rapport - class management	- monitoring - good rapport - good board work	- good rapport - management	- good rapport - management
	Negative	- poor use of board - speech too fast	- poor use of board - fast speech - instructions unclear	- fast speech - teacher-centred	- fast speech - teacher-centred	- no use of board - fast speech
Matthew Observed 2x by researcher	*Positive*	- good rapport - good use of Powerpoint	- good rapport - good materials(Ppoint)	- good materials	- good materials - clearer instructions	- good visuals (Powerpoint)
	Negative	- speech too fast(mumbled)	- unclear voice - unclear instructions	- speech too fast	- no feedback or checking understanding	- speech too fast - no feedback
Donald Observed 1x by researcher	*Positive*	- good range of activities	- good rapport - class management	- good range of activities - good rapport	- variety of activities - good rapport - management	- very S centred lesson (less teacher talk)
	Negative	- only whole group feedback	- teacher-centred - timing issues	- teacher-centred	- limited feedback - timing issues	- timing issues
Dave Not observed by researcher	*Positive*	- good rapport - materials - instructions	- materials - instructions - management	- good rapport - good materials - instructions - management	- good rapport	- good materials
	Negative	- confusing activities required repeated instructions	- confusing presentation and activities	- confusing materials	- confusing activities requiring repeated instructions	--------------------

Rebecca Observed 2x by researcher	*Positive*	- clear transitions - clear voice	- good grammar explanation		- smooth transitions	
	Negative	- teacher-centred - focus on 'rules'	- focus on 'rules'	- poor monitoring - fast speech - unclear instructions	- fast speech - unclear instructions	- poor monitoring - unclear instructions - complicated grammar presentation
John Observed 4x by researcher	*Positive*	- management - clear instructions - confident	- management - clear instructions - confident	- confident	-management	-----------------
	Negative	- too much material (timing) - time spent with one group	- too much material (timing) - time spent with one group	- timing (material)	-----------------	-----------------
Rory Observed 1x by researcher	*Positive*	- friendly	- friendly - well prepared materials	**LEFT OUT**	- good rapport - well prepared materials	- well prepared materials - 'progress' with class mgt.
	Negative	- unclear instructions - very quiet voice - materials complex	- too much material		- unclear instructions - poor control of class	- unclear instructions - voice too quiet

Table 10.1: Patterns in observing tutor feedback (with changes highlighted)

Note: Comments that occurred only once not included

My own observation showed similar patterns, although perhaps noting these patterns even more than the observing tutors did. Important to note is that the labels 'positive' and 'negative' in Table 10.1 are used not to make an objective judgment on certain behavior but rather to show which behavior was 'criticized' during feedback sessions and which was 'encouraged'. My own field notes did not include such a distinction. In addition, my observation notes, unlike the tutors', revealed a focus on the PPP approach in all but two of the CPs' lessons (Carl and Laura), unsurprising since all sample lessons and the majority of the course content encouraged this approach. Finally, although I noted qualities like 'rapport' and 'friendliness' briefly in my field notes, I did not emphasize it as the observing tutors did. Their intention for repeatedly noting it seemed to be to instill confidence in the CPs, one of the CertTESOL course's principal goals (see Chapter 9.6), which was remarkably successful.

A final, crucial point is that resistance to change of all types can sometimes be legitimate, and that this study does not attempt to make distinctions between which behavior or beliefs should be encouraged and which should not. A principal point is that the CPs, in their lack of change, demonstrated a likely lack of reflection on and critical examination of their behavior and beliefs.

10.4.1.2 Changes in CP behavior

Examining the data from Table 10.1, evidence of some change exists. In particular, according to the observing tutors, William exhibited 'unorganized' use of the board in his first two lessons. However, the third observing tutor noted that he had 'good written support on the board', perhaps indicating that he was modifying his behavior in response to the feedback from tutors. However, this does not seem to have been a permanent change in behavior (at least not yet) as the fifth tutor noted again that he needed to improve in this area.

Matthew often mumbled and spoke too quickly during his lessons, causing his instructions to be rather garbled and difficult to understand (noted both by me and the observing tutors). That said, the fourth observing tutor noted that he was giving 'clearer instructions', perhaps indicating that he was modifying his 'voice behavior'. However, the fifth tutor noted his 'fast speech', suggesting a need for further improvement.

Rebecca's and Rory's feedback forms indicate that the observing tutors believed that they had improved their teaching behavior, Rebecca in giving clear grammar

explanations and Rory in commanding more control of the class. However, as in Matthew's case, Rebecca again struggled with a complicated grammar presentation in her later lessons, as Table 10.1 indicates. In Rory's case, I disagreed with the final observing tutor's comment that she was making 'progress' with classroom management During my team-teach lesson with her in the final week, the class paid little attention to her instructions, Rory's quiet voice failing to command attention. Rory seemed to lack the confidence to control the class, in one instance reading aloud a long passage when the class ignored her instructions to read it silently. The class continued to talk above her, and I was forced to re-iterate her instructions. Since I had not observed her teaching prior to this, her 'management' behavior might have improved compared with previous teaching occasions, but it seemed that her timidity was a source of difficulty for her.

The only CP whose behavior underwent more radical change (as observed and noted by the observing tutor) was Donald. This was remarkable given that he seemed most resistant to change and most skeptical about course content. His comments after the course, which will be discussed further in 10.4.3, reveal that that he had 'been sold on the need for greater student participation when teaching' (Donald, E-mail, March 22, 2006). This was the area where his teaching behavior changed the most. Initially, the tutors consistently noted that his first three teaching practice sessions were too teacher-centred, dominated by a lecture style format with little opportunity for students to practice the target language. However, his final two classes were marked by increased student participation, with his taking a less dominant role, speaking less in a whole-class format. The observing tutor for his fifth lesson noted, 'Very student centered lesson with appropriate support, good communicative lesson'. I was unable to observe Donald's teaching save for a team-teach session with Carl, where Carl seemed to dominate in a lecture-style, teacher-fronted lesson, so the data is limited in this respect. However, Donald's post-course comments seem to support a shift in belief that resulted in a shift in behavior, which will be explored further in a subsequent sub-section on changes in belief (Chapter 10.4.2).

10.4.1.3 Discussion

The lack of change in the CPs' behavior during the Practicum is, again, unsurprising due both to the short duration of the course as well as the general difficulty of changing behavior cemented in belief. Da Silva argues,

when teachers' experiential knowledge is contradicted by theory, teachers tend to reject the 'new' knowledge and maintain old practices no matter how logical or sound it could be and strong conflicts and dilemmas may arise. (Da Silva, 2005: 15)

Most of the CPs with past experiential knowledge (teaching experience), including Carl, Laura, Rory, and Sharon, perhaps found it easier to rely on past behaviors that had worked for them. However, Donald's change in behavior suggests that this is not always the case for Certificate CPs with teaching experience. Donald's beliefs about teaching, as the next sub-sections will explore, initially contradicted the more student-centered theory of learning presented on the course. However, despite initially rejecting this theory, Donald changed both his beliefs and his behavior towards the end of the course, a change not exhibited in the other CPs. The CPs without past teaching experience seemed to rely on their 'apprenticeship of observation' rather than course content to guide their behaviors, which perhaps explains why their behavior did not shift.

It's difficult to speculate on the reasons why Donald, more than the others, was open to change. Kennedy provides a possible explanation, noting that 'people are rational beings and that a change will be adopted once evidence has been produced to show that it will benefit those whom it affects' (Kennedy, 1987: 164). Donald used his most student-centered lesson in the 'Best Lesson Workshop' (where CPs talked with each other and a tutor about one lesson which worked well) and described it as a lesson that 'went reasonably well...' (Donald, AR, July 28, 2005). This indicates one of two things: either he attempted a change in behavior (away from teacher-centered behavior), saw that it worked, and changed his beliefs about teaching or else he was convinced based on course input that a student-centered teaching style better suited the practice of ELT and thus changed his behavior to suit his belief. Unfortunately, the data does not reveal which was the case.

An additional point stems from the fact that despite the course's focus on behavior, not much change in teaching behavior actually occurred. Certainly, again, one can hardly expect much change to occur on such a short course. As has already been mentioned, change is not a completely linear process but is typically cyclical in nature with false starts and regression on the road to progress. That said, the apparent lack of change may have stemmed from the fact that despite the tutors' focus on teaching behavior, no formal assessment of behavior existed that impacted a CP's final mark. This is not the case at other short-term course providers. Brandt's recent research on teaching practice in TESOL Certificate courses reveals that pressure to conform to a set

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of behavioral guidelines leads CPs to modify their behavior frequently in order to conform to, as she puts it, 'their tutors' expectations and preferences' (Brandt, 2006: 356). This pressure to perform comes with its own set of problems, compounding the potential for 'display' behavior. So then, perhaps, the problem of a focus on behavioral change is more serious at other course providers than AU, where at the time of this research, the teaching practice was not formally measured against a set of guidelines, although a rubric of formal assessment has since been created.

10.4.2 Evidence of change in beliefs, knowledge, and self-perception

The types of data necessary to detect change in behavior are very different from those used to detect belief, knowledge, or affective change. Whereas the former included tutor feedback forms and researcher field notes, the latter included CPs' TP Journals and comments in conversation. Although the CPs' behavior was directly observable, their thoughts, feelings, and experiences had to be accessed by means other than observation field notes.

As McGrath writes, 'Access to information on participants' expectations, knowledge, attitudes, or practices prior to the commencement of a course is not always possible, communication difficulties or late enrolments being two reasons for this' (McGrath, 1997: 188). The same was true of this course. Pre-course data collection related to participants' beliefs, attitudes, knowledge of teaching, and self-perception was not conducted because the list of participants was finalized only days before the course. In addition, there was risk of being rejected by CPs who didn't know the researcher and who were already facing the stresses of completing the DL component. As a result, the results of this study are limited in that pre-course beliefs were not established (for further discussion, see Chapter 11.2) However, recorded (via audio or field notes) conversations and comments and the CPs' TP Journal entries provide some evidence of the level of change in the CPs' 'invisible experiences' while on the course. In particular, because the majority of the CPs made belief-statements in the first few days of the course, comparison was enabled between their early comments and those made at later dates.

Data analysis reveals that the CPs' attitudes, beliefs, knowledge, and self-perception can be grouped into the following categories:

- conceptual knowledge/ beliefs about teaching and learning (including beliefs related to judging the success of a lesson and the role of classroom materials)
- attitude towards the course and its components
- knowledge of teaching (including teaching techniques, lesson planning, etc.)
- self-perception (i.e. confidence in the classroom, awareness of weaknesses, and ability to see themselves in the role of a teacher)

The CPs' statements of belief or attitude did not always translate into classroom behavior. For example, Carl re-iterated his belief that students learn through talking and discussing topics. However, he often answered his own questions when teaching and offered extended monologues on topics that held his own interest. Indeed, as in Carl's case, many teachers do not behave consistently with what they say they believe, stating perhaps a preference for a philosophy of teaching, such as the popular communicative language teaching approach, without implementing it (see Richards, 1998). A further contradiction was evident in the CPs' TP Journals, where the CPs' seem to have felt pressure to state beliefs that would be viewed favorably by the tutors (see 10.3).

Certainly, then, the issue of beliefs is quite complex, largely due to their ill-defined relationship with behavior. Nevertheless, the following subsections demonstrate that each CP held quite firm beliefs about teaching, stemming partly from their past experience. Each CP also maintained certain attitudes towards classroom teaching, showing the most change in terms of self-perception (including confidence) and knowledge of teaching techniques and skills.

Tables 10.2 and 10.3 provide, first, details regarding the language that participants used to signal some change or development in belief, attitude, self-perception, or knowledge of teaching (see Table 10.2) and second, the 'belief-themes' that emerged from the CPs' discussions, emails, and TP Journals (see Table 10.3). Examination of these suggests little change in belief, except for Donald, who also exhibited the most change in teaching behavior. More common was the change in confidence and in self-perception.

In examining the language of change (see Table 10.2), some caveats are in order. First, the TP Journal prompts elicited language of change (i.e. 'Comment on your personal development...', 'What, if anything, would you change about this lesson...') (see 10.3). For this reason, portions of the data collected from TP Journal entries could not necessarily serve as evidence of change. For example, in the final journal entry, where CPs had to summarize their progress, many of the CPs stated that they had learned a new skill or piece of knowledge about teaching, which was a restatement of a

belief that they had mentioned earlier in the course. Essentially, then, the CPs often used the language of change to describe instances where change had not occurred.

In order to ascertain, then, how far such data from the TP Journal *could* be relied upon, comparisons were made between TP Journal entries and statements made in conversation. In addition, the fact that some CPs clearly stated that they were not taking the TP Journal assignment seriously also had to be taken into account. Indeed, the data was quite complex. That said, Table 10.2 provides examples of CPs' language of change not contradicted elsewhere in the data. These will be explored after a discussion of the evidence suggesting lack of change in beliefs about teaching and learning (see Table 10.3). Concluding this sub-section, discussion on the issue of change will explore the likely conclusion that the CPs' beliefs were static because they did not stand in marked contradiction to those presented on the course (see da Silva, 2005).

Category of Statement	Sub-Category	Example
Statement of increase in previously held skill, belief, or attitude	Self-perception (confidence)	• 'I'm more assertive' (Rebecca, TP Journal, 7LE). • 'I think I've become more confident' (Kate, AR, July 2, 5, 2005).
	Knowledge of Teaching	• 'My time management and advanced planning skills have developed a lot which means I'm much more efficient and reduces stress' (Rebecca, TP Journal, 7LE).
Statement of change in feelings or attitude	Self-perception (confidence)	• 'From being very nervous and apprehensive,… I now feel confident' (Amber, TP Journal, 7LE). • 'Most important I think is my growth in confidence in being before a large group of students and having the ability to actually teach them something' (John, TP Journal, 7LE). • 'I now feel confident enough to enter a classroom and enthusiastically present a lesson' (Dave, TP Journal, 7LE).
Statement of new knowledge	Knowledge of Teaching	• 'I have learned that slight modification of my language is necessary in the classroom…' (John, TP Journal, 6LE). • 'I understand how to use materials and course books effectively being able to adapt these appropriately for learners needs. I have learned how to plan a lesson using varying interaction patterns for certain tasks, understanding why some modes work better than others in certain situations' (John, TP Journal, 7LE). • 'And using a coursebook. I don't think I'd necessarily use a coursebook as effectively as I should've done. I think in some ways because of being insecure about it. It's been more of a- what word am I looking for- um, it's been more something to depend on without really knowing how to take advantage of it' (Sharon, AR, July 4, 2005).
Statement of Desire to Change/ Awareness of Weakness	Self-perception (awareness of weakness)	• 'In the future I want to improve on being a more assertive teacher, to be less 'woolly' and more clear and directive both in my instructions at the various stages of the leson and at the start and close of the lesson' (Rory, TP Journal, 7LE). • 'I need to be more clear in my instructions and model what I want the learners to do' (Rory, TP Journal, 1LE). • 'That I need to be very clear with my instructions of what I want the learners to do' (Rory, TP Journal, 4LE).

Table 10.2: Course participants' self-reported descriptions of change

CP	Time	Beliefs about learning	Beliefs about Teaching	How a lesson should flow	Judging a lesson's success	Confidence	Beliefs about Materials	Attitude towards Language Awareness
Donald	*Early*	Memorization of language 'hardwires' it into your brain	CLT doesn't meet the needs of learners overseas who see learning as a 'discipline', importance of knowledge	PPP is an 'effective planning tool'	Can only be determined over time	Confidence well in place	Not articulated	Too much time wasted on LA
	Later	'need for more student activity…'	Less teacher control but focus on teacher knowledge	PPP is 'back to front somehow'	Can only be determined over time – no one lesson can stand alone	Confidence well in place	Not articulated	Felt its purpose had not been explained adequately
Carl	*Early*	Learning language is one of the side-effects of a good classroom discussion	A good teacher engages and offers opportunity for 'lively discussion'	'go with the flow', mostly lecture	Rely on 'gut instincts' – success determined by 'the quality of classroom discussions.'	Confidence well in place	Not articulated	Felt confident in his knowledge of LA, made no strong comments one way or another.
	Later	Students learn through talking and discussing	Teaching involves mainly informal discussion, being friendly	Same pattern	success determined by 'the quality of classroom discussions.'	Confidence well in place	Not articulated	Felt confident in his knowledge of LA, made no strong comments one way or another.
Laura	*Early*	Learners have a need to be explicitly taught the structure of language Learning only occurs when students are interested and excited	Teaching involves mainly just being 'interesting' and 'eccentric'	"lesson objectives should be partly student led"	Determined by students' excitement and enthusiasm	Confidence well in place	Not articulated	Important for teacher to be knowledgeable but time spent on course was a waste of time
	Later	Same focus on importance of explicit presentation of structure and learners' interest in topic	Teaching involves being interesting, having good rapport	A lesson should progress 'naturally' But showed change in attitude towards being observed and creating objectives	Determined by level of student response (enthusiasm)	Confidence well in place	Not articulated	Still saw LA as waste of time
Rory	*Early*	FOCUS ON PERFORMANCE a friendly and helpful teacher will motivate the learners	Good teaching = good materials	Strong focus on PPP in TP Journal	The learners complete all the activities	Little to no confidence	Focus placed on producing 'lovely' materials'	Disliked time spent on LA
	Later	Same focus on the teacher's performance in the classroom, little focus on learners	Good teaching = good materials	Strong focus on PPP in TP Journal but seemed to flow from one 'exciting' activity to the next	"The objectives were achieved as the learners were able to fulfill all the tasks and find the common ground between them.	'I feel confident about planning a lesson, and less confident about teaching some of the grammar'	Focus placed on entertaining activities and 'lovely materials'	'Initially I thought a lot of the phonology was not useful.' Still disliked LA tests

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Name								
John	Early	Interaction is of prime importance	Choosing content that is interesting and applicable to the lives of students	Focus on PPP	Achieving objectives	Little confidence in teaching ability or knowledge of English language	Focus on relevant and interesting materials	Recognized lack of knowledge but thought LA on course was 'pointless'
	Later	Interaction promotes learning, learners motivated by an interesting teacher	Choosing 'relevant, stimulating, and authentic materials'	Focus on PPP	Achieving objectives and interacting with students	Increased confidence in teaching ability, still limited confidence in LA	Focus on relevant and interesting materials	LA on course was pointless, said 'I can learn it on my own'
Dave	Early	Importance of learner's enthusiasm as a pre-requisite for learning	The students were very much engaged and amused, and I feel that it set the context well."	Focus on PPP	Students have a 'good time'	"a bit intimidating"	Focus on fun and personalized materials	'What might need improving is…my knowledge of grammar'
	Later	Continued to stress learners' enthusiasm, being given a purpose for learning	Good teaching involves being an 'entertainer' with good rapport	Focus on PPP	Students have a 'good time' – show some evidence of learning in the activities	Increased in the areas of speaking in front of a group	Focus on fun and personalized materials	Described LA as 'boring' and 'unimportant'
Kate	Early	Learning language involves communication, interaction	'fully prepared/ knowledgeable,' aware of students' practical needs	Focus on PPP	Lesson objectives met, evidenced by completion of all activities	Nervous about teaching in a 'formal setting'	Not articulated	Nervous about explaining grammar but felt time spent during the course was boring
	Later	Student interaction and discussion important for learning	Provides practical lessons that involve interaction	Focus on PPP	Lesson objectives met, evidenced by completion of all activities	Increased confidence in teaching but not in LA	Not articulated	Not articulated
Rebecca	Early	Communication and interaction important for learning	Involves control, discipline, and knowledge, planning	Focus on PPP	Whether or not students communicated	High level of self confidence	Not articulated	Not articulated
	Later	Focus placed on students' communicating in class via activities	Involves control, discipline, knowledge, planning	Focus on PPP	Whether or not students understood and completed activities	High level of self confidence	Not articulated	Not articulated
Amber	Early	Learning is evidenced by 'free-flowing language'	Teacher must be inspiring, motivating, interesting	Focus on PPP	Determined by level of student enjoyment	Very nervous	Not articulated	Nervous about lack of LA but made no comments about inclusion on the course
	Later	Learning accompanies being interested in the topic and 'bonding' in the classroom	Good rapport, good use of humor, inspiring, motivating	Focus on PPP	Determined by student enthusiasm and interest in topic	"From being very nervous and apprehensive,… I now feel confident"	Not articulated	Nervous about lack of LA but made no comments about inclusion on the course

Matthew	*Early*	Statements restricted to the importance of exciting materials	Creates interesting materials, teaching involves mastering behavior	Strict adherence to PPP	Not articulated	'a little anxious'	Heavy focus on materials, self-created animations	Strong dislike of time spent learning LA
	Later	Statements restricted to the importance of exciting materials	Creates interesting materials – stated one can learn everything about teaching in 2 years	Strict adherence to PPP	Not articulated	'I now feel confident in my ability to be able to plan and manage a lesson'	Focus on Powerpoint, quality of materials	'Boring'
William	*Early*	Student involvement important. Not too much teacher talk.	Teaching involves being confident and friendly	PPP	Determined by soundness and completion of lesson plan	Very nervous about all aspects of the course	Not articulated	Nervous about level of LA
	Later	Stressed the importance of students' involvement and interest facilitating learning	'nice classroom manner, good rapport, lively, confident, and interesting'	PPP	Determined by whether or not he had adequately prepared	I'm well prepared and the lessons don't scare me anymore!'	Not articulated	Nervous about level of LA

Table 10.3: Development of beliefs and attitudes (changes highlighted)

10.4.2.1 Change in beliefs about teaching and learning

As Table 10.3 demonstrates, the CPs made many comments in conversation, e-mails, and course assignments regarding their beliefs and teaching and learning. The majority of these did not appear to change throughout the course, and, arguably, this lack of change was justified in some cases. For example, many of the CPs spoke about the importance of maintaining good rapport with students and being enthusiastic about lesson content. Others, such as Rory, John, Dave, and Matthew, noted the value of creating high quality materials and their potential to motivate students. Further, Dave, Laura, and Amber vocalized their view that a lesson's success hinges on student enjoyment. Though not necessarily reinforced by course tutors in every instance, these views were both consistent with the overall philosophy of teaching presented on the course and, one could argue, consistent with good teaching.

The following series of sub-sections will focus on the CPs beliefs which either stood in contradiction to the course content or which underwent observable change during the course (see Table 10.3). Though such cases are few, some conclusions may thus be reached regarding tutor response to 'discouraged' beliefs and to what extent the short course contributes to change.

Beliefs about learners and learning

As discussed in Chapter 9.6, the Trinity CertTESOL course focuses on teacher behavior. For example, AU's teaching feedback sessions focused on issues like teacher voice, instructions, and transition between activities. This focus, not surprisingly, was echoed by the CPs, who, despite making some statements regarding their beliefs about how language learning occurs, did not speak or write in detail about the learners in their teaching practice sessions. The only exceptions to this were their noting the students' level of enthusiasm for the topic, friendliness towards the teacher, and their completion of the activities in the time allotted (see Table 10.3). Instead, the CPs seemed to view the classroom from a performance, teacher-focused perspective, concentrating on how well they as teachers commanded attention, gave instructions, or maintained interest in the topic at hand. This focus echoes the literature on novice teachers who tend to equate classroom teaching as performance (see Kennedy, 1993; Borg, 2005; da Silva, 2005), as has already been discussed.

However, the CPs did make some statements of belief about learning that, coincidentally or not, were often consistent with the philosophy of learning in the DL modules[13]. These beliefs appeared unchanged throughout the duration of the course. However, one CP showed a shift in thinking in terms of learners and learning. Donald's early statements on the course about the importance of rote learning are the only stated belief about learners and learning among the CPs that seemed to change. He noted during the first week of the course that memorizing lists of vocabulary words 'hardwires' them into your brain (Donald, AR, July 2, 2005). He remarked in another conversation that, contrary to the philosophy of communicative language learning espoused by the course tutors, learning language is a 'discipline,' requiring more than just conversations with other learners but rather 'sticking your nose in a grammar book'. However, as Table 10.3 illustrates, Donald noted a shift later in the course in his thinking, remarking that he now saw the need for a more learner-centred environment. His beliefs about learning seemed to have shifted from teacher-centered rote learning to a more learner-centered, interactional style of learning. Possible reasons for his change in belief will be explored in the discussion which concludes this sub-section.

Beliefs about teaching

The CPs' beliefs about the characteristics of a good teacher remained largely unchanged, unsurprisingly, throughout the course, with the exception of Donald's (see Table 10.3). Further, whereas the majority of the CPs' held views consistent with the course's philosophy of teaching, Rebecca's views were quite different.

Rebecca expressed a strong belief in the importance of teacher control, which for her seemed to mean exercising her authority and disallowing any student conversation or behavior that detracted from her lesson plan. While observing her first lesson, I noted,

> Rebecca's activity was the first – She took control of the class right from the start, asking the students to turn off their cell phones and reprimanding someone who had received a call and was talking on her phone. She passed out stickers for students' names and asked them to write their 'easy names'. (FN, July 7, 2005)

In her TP Journal, Rebecca noted classroom management or control as one of her best strengths as a teacher. However, at one point an observing tutor described her level of

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[13] This speaks to the possibility of the DL having some impact on the CPs' beliefs. However, the CPs often stated their beliefs about learning in the context of telling a story about past experience, making it unlikely that such beliefs were the result of the DL.

control as 'scary' perhaps due to the seemingly harsh tone she took with the students, sometimes bordering on shouting at them, as my observation of her teaching revealed. Despite the tutors' encouragement of Rebecca to 'tone down' her management techniques, she maintained her approach throughout the course.

Donald, again, seemed to be the only CP to change his views on teaching. His early statements indicate a belief in strong teacher control and teacher-centeredness. However, later in the course, he noted that a good teacher gives up his/her control of the classroom in order to promote student autonomy. During the 'Best Lesson Workshop', Donald related a lesson where the students retained most of the control with only limited guidance from the teacher. He noted, 'I'm gonna do a lesson that I think went reasonably well, and the observer seemed to think it went reasonably well as well' (Donald, AR, July 28, 2005). His choice indicated a shift in belief regarding the level of teacher control essential for learning. Possible reasons for this change in belief as well will be discussed at the end of this set of sub-sections.

Beliefs about lesson structure and flow

Both the course content and the TP Journal promoted use of the PPP approach to lesson planning, the reasonable rationale being that it is a good, initial basis which novice teachers can comfortably rely upon. In response, the majority of the CPs relied exclusively on PPP, often describing it as the most effective way of structuring and maintaining good flow in a lesson. However, Carl and Laura expressed preference for another type of lesson structure, and Donald became somewhat skeptical of PPP, a view seemingly unprompted by course tutors or content.

Laura and Carl, contrary to the other CPs, were more detached from the PPP approach, stating consistently their belief in the importance of a lesson guided by a 'free flow of ideas', which was contradictory to course content. For example, the stages of Carl's lessons consistently followed a pattern of opening discussion (which usually consisted of a lengthy teacher monologue), a structured activity, and final discussion, (consisting of mostly teacher talk with some input from vocal students). When describing his fifth lesson, Carl noted, 'My lesson plans are great. It's just that I don't do anything. For the first time last night, I managed to do one thing on my plan, which is sort of ironic' (Carl, AR, July 19, 2005). Carl's teaching and comments suggest a preference for lesson flow determined by the teacher's whims.

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Contrary to the tutors' guidance, Laura objected to the notion of lesson objectives, arguing that 'lesson objectives should be partly student led...' (Laura, TP Journal, 1LE), meaning that the lesson should go where students lead. For example, after a lesson intended to provide practice in extended reading but serving instead as an extensive pronunciation question and answer session, Laura commented, 'what you find is that you don't need to plan your lesson so much because they sort of take control, don't they?' (Laura, AR, July 8, 2005). One of her later journal entries noted,

> Another thing I feel strongly is that however well the lesson is executed, if the students are bored rigid by you they won't learn – so it is important to motivate the students – by taking seriously distractions they bring up, if necessary. (Laura, TP Journal, 5LE).

Both Laura and Carl held firmly to their notions of lesson structure and flow despite course input that strongly encouraged and even required the creation of specific lesson objectives.

On the other hand, an early entry in Donald's TP journal referred to PPP as 'an effective planning tool' (Donald, TP Journal, 3LE). Donald noted a few pages later in his journal that each lesson's cohesiveness was dependent on this model. This being the case, Donald's later questioning of this perspective is quite surprising. Despite his early journal entries pointing to initial acceptance of the PPP approach, Donald's attitude towards PPP was later more skeptical. His comments during the last week of the course illustrate this.

Donald: It also seems to me that because we always put the free practice at the end.
Rebecca: At the end
Donald: To give them some variety and some benefit, yet that's the one that gets chopped off.
Rebecca: Yeah, yeah
Donald: Whereas, I think it's back to front somehow. I'm not sure how... (Audio Recording, July 28, 2005)

When describing his own 'best lesson' that same day, he revealed his change in view, noting that he had chosen a different approach to lesson planning, centered on a more task-based approach, and found that it was more successful. When asked what had prompted him to choose this particular approach (which he did not refer to as task-based), he said it seemed 'infinitely more practical' and 'more like real life' but made no reference to the input session which included a brief discussion of task-based language learning.

Donald's changing view on lesson structure was consistent with his change in belief in other areas. This serves as further evidence that this change in perspective

about PPP was authentic in that it permeated other related beliefs about teaching and learning. Conclusions regarding Donald's change and Carl and Laura's resistance to change will be discussed in the conclusion paragraphs of this section.

Judging a lesson's success

Although the majority of the CPs evaluated their lessons in ways harmonizing with course content, Carl often described his classroom experience as 'feeling ok' or 'seeming fine' (AR, July 8, 26, 2005). He often seemed to rely on instincts to determine the success or failure of a particular lesson, although this instinct seemed also to stem from student response to the lesson (see Table 10.3). When asked to relate either how success would be measured or whether or not the objectives had been met, he wrote each time that success would be determined by the quality of the classroom discussions (Carl, TP Journal, 1LE-5LE), a rather imprecise form of measurement. After a conversation in the last week, I wrote in my field notes,

> It was interesting to hear him talk about his lesson. He said that though the lesson went wrong (he said he never really 'got on top of it'), he said he got the basics right, pacing and repetition and didn't rush). But I felt that he was saying that because the learners didn't seem lively and didn't have a great discussion that the lesson wasn't as successful. He said he just kept asking himself, 'Have I got them with me?' (FN, July 28, 2005)

In the last week of the course, Carl noted that he still relied on 'great atmosphere' in a lesson but also made the quite interesting comment that he realized that, due to tutor criticism, this was perhaps not the best gauge of success. Carl said,

> One or two of my observers, you know, said great atmosphere or whatever. That seemed to go fine but how did you know- or you said they got such and such, but how do you know? And I didn't. So I hadn't actually tested, you know, I hadn't got a final activity that somehow enabled me to say yes, they've all got this. Um, that was a difficulty that when I sort of got things going, I needed to somehow have a way of bringing that in, but I find that very difficult. (Carl, AR, July 28, 2005)

Comments like this indicate that he was aware of areas that the tutors advised him to change (i.e. using student learning as a gauge for success) but was also aware of the great difficulty he faced in implementing that change. Some could therefore argue that Carl was on the first step towards changing his beliefs and thus his behavior in this area. However, despite Carl's awareness of what the tutors saw as 'weakness' in his teaching, he seemed to make little effort to change his behavior. Although he contemplated change in areas like lesson design and amount of teacher talk, it appears he concluded eventually that his way was either easier or better or both. Carl confirmed this idea in a

follow-up interview several months after the course was over, noting a lack of time to implement the techniques from the course and the greater ease of using more familiar methods. Carl was an experienced teacher and also one of the older CPs, age therefore playing an important factor in influencing how receptive he was to change. However, awareness of weakness is an important change in and of itself, regardless of whether or not it leads to change in behavior, and this change in awareness will be discussed in a subsequent sub-section.

10.4.2.2 Evolving attitudes towards the course

Table 10.4 contains a general overview of the CPs' affective stance towards the course. The following subsections will examine the CPs' development in attitude towards various elements of the course, including input sessions and course assignments, teaching practice, and language awareness components, demonstrating that individual attitudes remained fairly consistent throughout the course. The only observed change was an increasing negativity towards input sessions which seemed to stem both from the group dynamic and the pressures and stresses associated with completing course assignments.

Attitudes towards input sessions and assignments

The powerful group dynamic present on the course made it difficult, at times, to ascertain each CP's attitude towards the course components. From the first day of the course, two of the CPs, Donald and Laura, established themselves as 'group leaders' by being more vocal in lectures. This leadership was further solidified when these two spearheaded a complaint about the take-home language awareness exams, speaking for the 'group' even when group consensus had not really been established. Due to their role as group leaders, their negative attitude spread to the rest of the group and became a means of group solidarity. Kate and Carl, for example, often expressed negative comments towards the input sessions and assignments as a way of showing unity with the group, their comments in more private conversations being much less negative. For this reason, their comments had to be examined in light of others made in their TP Journals and in personal e-mails to me during and after the course. 'Team spirit' was indeed a powerful force. As one of the tutors noted, one or two negative individuals in a group make the course much more difficult to complete (Course Tutor, Interview, July

21, 2005). And when course leaders are unaware of the negativity present in a group dynamic, such negativity can run unchecked and unbalanced by more positive viewpoints. One of the course leaders noted that this particular group was one of the most positive groups they had ever had, which may certainly have been true, although it seemed at the time to be a comment born out of unawareness that the group was, in fact, vocalizing negativity when the tutors weren't present.

General Attitude	CP	Attitude Summarized
Positive ↕ Mixed ↕ Negative	Kate	Open-minded and eager to learn, fairly positive towards course, expressed negativity largely to maintain group identity
	Carl	Open-minded and willing to learn but difficulty changing his style
	Amber	Open-minded and eager to learn, fairly positive towards course although some dislike for impractical lectures and assignments that did not seem applicable to classroom teaching
	William	Overwhelmed, skipped several lectures, demonstrated some interest in course but very nervous about teaching right through to the end
	Dave	Fairly open-minded but somewhat uninterested in anything theoretical, saw some assignments as a waste of time.
	Sharon	Only valued practical techniques and tips, fairly quiet during lectures, became increasingly distant
	Rory	Appreciated bits of the course but very apprehensive about teaching and uninterested in anything theoretical, saw some assignments as a waste of time.
	John	Skeptical, felt course portrayed teaching as harder than it actually was, felt most assignments were a waste of time but was diligent in attendance
	Donald	Skeptical, showed strong preference for practical techniques and tips
	Laura	Skeptical, unwilling to change, showed marked disdain for anything impractical or theoretical
	Matthew	Skipped many lectures, regularly voiced his opinion that it was all a waste of time
	Rebecca	Very negative towards course, lectures, and observation of her teaching, skipped numerous lectures

Table 10.4: Course participants' attitudes towards the course

Each CP's attitude towards the course itself, as well as its components and assignments, remained fairly consistent throughout the course's duration. Donald, for example, one of the CPs who exhibited a more teacher-centred style, remained indifferent and skeptical towards theoretical input sessions, admitting in a subsequent e-mail that he was aware that he behaved at times 'too know it all, a temptation my wife tells me I must resist!' (Donald, E-mail, July 12, 2005). The consistency in the CPs' attitudes will be discussed in the following paragraphs, which deal with the CPs'

preference for practical input sessions, their dislike of course assignments, and their frustration with the inclusion of language awareness content on the course, particularly in the form of take-home exams.

The CPs' dislike of theoretical course input sessions was evidenced in their repeated absence from and critical comments about them. On the other hand, the CPs continuously noted their appreciation for input sessions that provided immediately applicable teaching techniques and tips. These attitudes remained unchanged throughout the course, and comments exemplifying them can be seen in Table 10.5.

Overall, the CPs' attitude towards the theoretical input sessions (i.e. Psycholinguistics, Contrastive Analysis, Cultural Awareness) is unsurprising given the amount of content on the course which they had no prior knowledge of nor experience with. The format of the practical sessions, which often involved language games and interactive group work activities, may have contributed to this attitude, as well. The more theoretical sessions most often involved a tutor talking through a handout with plentiful references on the back page. Donald once asked that a tutor suggest one of two 'reader-friendly' books on a theoretical topic. When the tutor referred him to the reference list, Donald remarked that there was no way he was ever going to read all of those books.

Comments directed at 'theoretical' input sessions	'[Skipping classes] was down to the workload...I felt that I could afford to skip it and make better use of my time'(Dave, FQ) '...they [theoretical input sessions, i.e. using dictionaries] don't apply to our students' (Kate, AR, July 18, 2005) 'Well, I just think the lectures aren't having any effect on me anymore...I just can't see what else there is I can really know or learn...I made a firm decision yesterday that it's not as hard as what it seems. I think we're getting too much information so it's seeming harder than it actually is, and I think if you actually just kind of realize that you are getting so much information but you probably only need 10 percent of it. You can slice through it, and the pressure will be off'' (John, AR, July 7, 2005) 'gone over the top of our heads' (Laura, AR, July 7, 2005) 'bloody boring' (Rebecca, AR, July 18, 2005)
Comments directed at 'practical' input sessions	'Stuff like the information gap [is valuable]. I mean, I've probably done activities like that and not realized it. I just never would've thought to do that sort of thing in class. It's opened my eyes...' (Dave, AR, July 11, 2005) '[Tutor's name]'s are very practical...And from that point of view, it's worth seeing them if you've never seen these things before' (Donald, AR, July 14, 2005)

Table 10.5: Course participants' comments reflecting attitudes towards course input sessions

The CPs were less negative towards the course assignments than the input sessions, although many felt that the time spent on assignments was time taken away

from the teaching practice, which was, without exception, the only element of the course that all CPs seemed to indisputably value. This raises the question of whether or not more teaching practice should be incorporated, a question which will be discussed further in the final section on recommendations. However, given that the course is already so short, addition of further teaching practice would mean the elimination of other theoretical and/or practical input sessions, a trade-off not necessarily helpful. given that the ones presently provided are typically already short and few in number.

Table 10.6 contains examples of typical comments directed at the course assignments (including the Profile of an English Language Learning and the Language Learning Journal) and at the teaching practice, which, out of all the course components, generated the only consistently positive response from the CPs.

Comments directed at Course Assignments	▪ 'We've got that profile. That's an inane amount of work, not very useful, learning journal which I need to catch up today' (Rebecca, AR, July 15, 2005) ▪ '[Sharon said she] didn't use techniques [from the 'Unknown Language' sessions] so it was useless since we didn't teach complete beginners. She said she found Slovenian very difficult and intimidating' (FN, July 29, 2005) ▪ 'pointless' (John, AR, July 28, 2005; Matthew, AR, July 27, 2005; Dave, AR, July 27, 2005)
Comments directed at the Teaching Practice	▪ 'The actual teaching, of course [is the most valuable element of the course]' (Dave, AR, July 11, 2005) ▪ Valerie: What do you think about the course so far? William: It's a bit intimidating but it's going ok so far Valerie: What do you mean? William: Just the whole – oh, you'll be teaching on Thursday. NO, I won't! Teaching what? What are you talking about? (AR, July 3, 2005)

Table 10.6: Course participants' comments reflecting attitudes towards course assignments and the teaching practice

Attitude towards language awareness

Group dynamics (including the influence of more powerful, vocal CPs) certainly contributed to the CPs' negative attitudes towards the inclusion of language awareness (LA) on the direct contact phase of the CertTESOL course. However, the CPs were just as critical of the LA components in private as in public where the 'group leaders' were present. In this way, the data points to a general dislike of the language awareness modules on the course, despite a fear of not knowing all the answers to grammar questions.

Donald was one of the most vocal, and his comments on the course suggest a disdain for the DL and subsequent LA exams during the course. One morning, Donald said

> that he didn't feel that the usefulness of these things (such as phonetics and phonology) had been adequately explained to him and that he didn't understand why we had to 'bloody do it'. (FN, July 14, 2005)

He subsequently complained to the tutors about the exams and asked for an extension, calling the exams 'unnecessary' (Donald, AR, July 15, 2005). In a discussion about the moderation interview at the end of the course, Donald said, 'It'll be what have we learned, why we did this and that, why we did all those hours of Slovenian rather than stressing what the past participle is gonna be' (Donald, AR, July 18, 2005), demonstrating again his belief that such information was not very important on the course.

Most of the other CPs made similar negative comments about the LA component, an example being Rory, whose anxiety seemed to stem at least partly from her lack of English language knowledge. She commented on the first day of the course that she was apprehensive about 'how the students will ask questions that I don't know the answer to' (Rory, AR, July 2, 2005), and when asked to choose a time slot for teaching practice, Rory asked for a pre-intermediate class so she wouldn't have to answer any difficult questions or move beyond basic grammar (FN, July 2, 2005). However, rather than welcoming the 'Language Awareness' and 'Phonetics and Phonology' exams, which might have reinforced what she had learned in the DL component, she seemed to resent this extra work, telling Donald and me that she had put that learning 'behind her' and that what was important now was the practice teaching and 'working out how to incorporate activities like melee' (FN, July 14, 2005). She later told the Trinity Moderator that she felt the exams were pointless, that 'she'd already moved past those and didn't want to revisit them...[because] they took valuable time away from the teaching practice' (FN, July 29, 2005).

Despite her generally positive attitude towards the course (see Table 10.4), even Kate said that she 'didn't understand the point [of the language awareness modules in both the distance learning and the direct contact phase] and found it very difficult to complete' (FN, July 11, 2005).. She later told Donald that she hoped the Trinity Moderator would not ask her about her knowledge of phonetics or 'anything like that' because she'd be lost (Kate, AR, July 18, 2005). In addition, the 'Grammar

Presentation' (during which we were required to either teach a piece of grammar to our colleagues or else discuss the best method of teaching a piece of grammar) was the only part of the course she referred to as pointless. She said, 'I still don't understand why we have to do that. Cause they've seen you teach a piece of grammar at some point in your lesson, so why do it again to each other?' (Kate, AR, July 28, 2005).

Overall, the negative attitude towards the LA component of the course was overwhelming and quite surprising. However, as a subsequent sub-section will demonstrate, some of the CPs seemed to develop a more positive attitude towards the LA component once the course had finished (see Chapter 10.4.3.2).

10.4.2.3 Change in knowledge of and about teaching

Aside from an increase in confidence, which will be discussed elsewhere, the CPs demonstrated the most change in knowledge of and about teaching (i.e. procedural knowledge and teaching techniques). As Chapter 2.4 discussed, the literature often distinguishes between declarative or 'knowing that', procedural or 'knowing how' (skill), and schematic or 'knowing why' knowledge (see Johnson, K., 1996: 82; Shavelson, Ruiz-Primo & Wiley, 2005: 414). An examination of AU's course objectives in Chapter 8.6 revealed that the CertTESOL course focuses more on procedural knowledge or skills and less on declarative and especially schematic knowledge.

The data reveals that the CPs reported an increase in both their procedural and declarative knowledge. The primary evidence of such change was taken from the CPs' TP Journals, although these were not always reliable sources of data (see 10.3). As previous sections have explored, the CPs sometimes made what purported to be self-reports of change but what were instead re-statements of previously held beliefs. Further, although it was sometimes possible to ascertain change in procedural knowledge based on observation of teaching behavior, it was also possible that the CPs had gained declarative and/or procedural knowledge which they did not discuss or exhibit during their teaching. Such possible change was, of course, difficult to document.

However, despite these issues, the CPs' statements of change in the TP Journals, coupled with teaching observation, reveal that the CPs exhibited an increased awareness in a variety of 'classroom truths' (declarative knowledge) and procedural techniques

and skills used in the ELT field. And given that the CPs paid close attention to the input sessions dealing with the acquisition of such skills due to their focus on practice over theory, such change is unsurprising. Table 10.7 provides specific examples from the data which reveal this change, organized into the grounded categories of classroom and time management, lesson planning (including activity types and interaction styles). teacher's language, and use of course books.

Borg (2005), presenting details of the development in thinking of pre-service CELTA trainees, provides evidence that short-term teacher education typically increases trainees' awareness of 'backstage' elements of teaching such as lesson planning. This was certainly the case at AU's CertTESOL course. Change in knowledge of teaching exhibited itself most particularly in the procedural area of lesson planning, where all of the CPs, except Carl and Laura, adopted use of the PPP paradigm and various classroom interaction patterns (group work, pair work, whole class format, etc.) outlined in the practical input sessions. Further, despite the lack of change in behavior, all of the CPs at least articulated an awareness of the need for certain teaching techniques and behaviors (declarative), such as a clear and articulate teaching voice and appropriate classroom and time management. Finally, as Table 10.7 illustrates, several of the CPs mentioned their increased knowledge of the appropriate use of course books (i.e. how to modify pre-set lesson plans), knowledge several admitted to lacking prior to the course.

Category of Knowledge	Evidence of Declarative Knowledge	Evidence of Procedural Knowledge
Lesson Planning	▪ 'the need to be realistic in the amount of work you intend to get through in a session' (Amber, TP Journal, 2LE). ▪ 'The main lesson I have learnt during my teaching experience is to be prepared. A well planned, organized lesson will flow and progress with very little teacher input and most of the information/learning can be generated by the students' (Kate, TP Journal, 7LE). ▪ 'Sound lesson planning [PPP] is the key to performing effectively with confidence' (William, TP Journal, 7LE). ▪ 'Now I understand what it takes to be a teacher...lesson planning, classroom management,	▪ 'I have improved with my lesson planning abilities. I am still following a PPP approach' (Matthew, TP Journal, 5LE). ▪ 'My lesson preparation skills have definitely increased' (Dave, TP Journal, 5LE). ▪ 'My time management and advanced planning skills have developed a lot which means I'm much more efficient and reduces stress' (Rebecca, TP Journal, 7LE).

	etc' (Matthew, TP Journal, 6LE). ■ 'I have learned that no matter how detailed a lesson is planned it can be useful to be flexible...' (Rory, TP Journal, 2LE).	
Classroom and Time Management	■ 'Now I understand what it takes to be a teacher...lesson planning, classroom management, etc.' (Matthew, TP Journal, 6LE).	■ 'One of the most important lessons I have learned...is the art of classroom management' (Amber, TP Journal, 7LE). ■ 'I feel my main improvement in the past few lessons has been my classroom management abilities' (Matthew, TP Journal. 5LE). ■ 'Timing getting better' (Donald, TP Journal). ■ 'My time management and advanced planning skills have developed a lot which means I'm much more efficient and reduces stress' (Rebecca, TP Journal, 7LE). ■ 'I have improved in both generating student discussion and in timing my lesson' (Carl, TP Journal, 6LE).
Teacher's Voice	■ it has become clear that there is a definitive need for clear, concise language use in the classroom' (Amber, TP Journal, 5LE). ■ 'The main thing I have learned...[is] the need for clear, audible and straightforward instructions...' (Dave, TP Journal, 1LE). ■ 'I learned not to use colloquial language...speak slower and moderate our local accent...' (Rebecca, TP Journal, 1LE). ■ 'I have learned that slight modification of my language is necessary in the classroom...' (John, TP Journal, 1LE). 'I have learnt... the clarity of instructions...' (Rory, TP Journal, 1LE).	■ 'I have improved in...trying to give instructions more succinctly' (Kate, TP Journal, 5LE). ■ 'With regards to my voice...it is something that is improving...' (Matthew, TP Journal, 5LE). ■ 'I'm getting a better feeling for...instructions' (Donald, TP Journal, 5LE).
Use of Course Books and Materials		■ 'The main areas of improvement for me have been ...utilizing and exploiting materials more effectively' (Kate, TP Journal, 6LE). ■ 'I understand how to use materials and course books effectively being able to adapt these appropriately...' (John, TP Journal, 7LE).

Table 10.7: Self-reported change in course participants' declarative and procedural knowledge

The CPs' increased knowledge of and about teaching reveals a positive element of the short-term course. As Davis writes, 'it is undeniably a strength of a teacher-training course to equip teachers with a range of practical procedures and techniques' (Davis, 1990: 11). Increased knowledge of lesson planning, choosing activities, and outlining interaction patterns, among other things, provides a range of choices to the novice teacher, who can then choose among them based on the teaching context. However, despite the importance of knowledge of the 'backstage' elements of teaching, the ability of a teacher to make informed choices does not necessarily follow. The short-term course seems to lack in this area, relying on the likelihood of CPs' securing a rewarding job that promotes and perhaps even requires further professional development and reflective practice. Unfortunately, the statistics reveal that this does not typically happen, the majority of individuals' leaving the field within five years. For this reason, despite the short course's success in relaying a variety of important skills and techniques, the wisdom to choose between them is not emphasized, largely due to time constraints.

10.4.2.4 Change in self-perception and awareness of weaknesses

By far, the most significant changes reported by the CPs were their ability to see themselves in the role of a teacher (i.e. increase in confidence) and awareness of weaknesses, changes noted in their comments in conversation and in their e-mails and TP Journal entries. Such changes are important steps in the process of teacher development, as Freeman (1989) points out, arguing that the process of acquiring 'attitude' and 'awareness' are critical in developing what he terms the four constituents of language teaching. By adopting a stance towards oneself and developing the capacity to recognize and monitor one's actions, change can be generated through increasing awareness (Freeman, 1989: 40).

For the CPs, the process of 'becoming a teacher' was closely tied to the issue of confidence, meaning that the CPs felt that they had become a teacher once they felt comfortable in the classroom (see Chapter 9.5). Even some of the experienced-teacher CPs vocalized an increasing confidence in the role of a language teacher as the course progressed. Although this was somewhat surprising, the literature reveals that such change in novice teachers is, on the other hand, typical (Brookhart & Freeman, 1992; Worthy, 2005). In fact, a comparison between comments early and later in the course

suggest that as the course progressed, most of the CPs displayed some movement in identity from non-teacher (or teacher-of-other-subjects) to language teacher. propelled by an increase in self-assurance when standing in front of the learners. Table 10.8 provides evidence of this movement.

CP	Comments Early in the Course	Comments towards the End of the Course
Dave	'…at times it [this course] does feel like this is all a test of coping rather than learning' (E-mail, July 12, 2005)	'My confidence has increased a lot…I had never taught a class and had very little experience of speaking to large groups of people. I now feel confident to enter a classroom and enthusiastically present a lesson' (TP Journal, 7LE)
William	'William told several of us that he could sit here for a year and still not know what to do. He also mentioned that he wished he had taught before because he felt he was at a disadvantage from the other course participants' (FN, July 4, 2005)	'I'm certainly getting more confident and using…laughter to great effect' (TP Journal, 5LE)
John		'Most important I think is my growth in confidence in being before a large group of students and having the ability to actually teach them something. I honestly wasn't sure that I would be able to do this and it caused me considerable anxiety' (TP Journal, 7LE)
Rory		'I feel confident about planning a lesson' (FN, July 27, 2005)
Kate		'By undertaking this course, I have…gained confidence in my ability…' (TP Journal, 7LE)
Amber		'From being very nervous and apprehensive about my abilities to succeed as a teacher of ESOL, I now feel confident that with more practice I will thoroughly enjoy a fruitful career as a teacher' (TP Journal, 7LE)
Matthew	'a little anxious' (FN, July 2, 2005)	'I now feel confident in my ability to be able to plan and manage a lesson for learners of English…' (TP Journal, 7LE)

Table 10.8: Course participants' comments about becoming comfortable in the role of teacher

That said, although Carl and Laura noted in their TP Journals an increase in confidence, their early course comments about their level of teaching experience and the language they used to distance themselves from the other candidates' 'inexperience' suggest that their confidence was clearly well in place from day one (see Chapter 10.3). In this way, their self-reported increase in confidence was questionable. Also. Donald was an exception regarding increased confidence and ability to see himself as a teacher.

his extensive prior teaching experience and naturally confident personality perhaps explaining this.

The data also reveals some complexities in each CP's shift in identity on the course. While most of their comments during the last week suggest increased confidence and ability to see themselves in the role of a teacher, follow-up questionnaires and e-mails reveal that, in time, many of the CPs lost confidence, particularly William, confirming that confidence developed during a teacher training course can be difficult to sustain. Chapter 10.4.3 will explore this further.

The litererature suggests that confidence in novice teacher trainees is often too high, and faced with the realities of the classroom, and novice teachers often face burnout due to overly high expectations on themselves (Dellar, 1990; Brookhart & Freeman, 1992; Warford & Reeves, 2003). However, one could argue that such confidence is appropriately counteracted on the short course by awareness of weakness, the second area of significant observable change in the CPs at AU (see Table 10.9 for examples from the TP Journal). Such awareness was perhaps due to the TP Journal prompts (which asked CPs to document their strengths and weaknesses) and the Practicum feedback sessions (wherein observing tutors pointed out three positive and three negative points of each teaching opportunity). As previously mentioned, awareness of one's weaknesses is a positive first step towards improvement, and the literature supports the notion that this leads to personal growth and change (Shriven, 1988; Singh & Shifflette, 1996). However, in this study, data sources other than the TP Journals, which were not consistently reliable as data, reveal little change in weakness-awareness. That said, the fact that the CPs sometimes re-iterated in their entries points from the feedback session discussions reveals that perhaps some cementing of these weaknesses may have occurred. Again, few of these statements translated into change in behavior, except in a few cases, but again, change is a lengthy process and may occur later in these CPs' careers.

The logical question that follows, then, is whether or not awareness of weakness is sufficient in and of itself in terms of professional development. Some argue that it is not enough, for example, Singh and Shifflette, who write, 'It seems that knowledge of effective practices is necessary but not sufficient for professional growth to occur' (Singh & Shifflette, 1996: 146). Their argument hinges on the popular notion that change in practice is rooted in change in belief and that awareness that one's practices

do not conform to an accepted norm does not necessarily lead to even a desire to change since one may believe that one's past practices simply work best.

Rory	▪ 'my instructions were not clear enough' (TP Journal, 1LE) ▪ 'I need to be more clear in my instructions and model...' (TP Journal, 1LE) ▪ '[weaknesses include] clarity of instructions, classroom management, using my 'voice' effectively, and giving sufficient time for feedback' (TP Journal, 5LE)
Matthew	▪ 'I would make it less teacher-focused...' 'I need to be conscious that the students...will struggle to understand instructions if they aren't clear...' (TP Journal, 2LE) ▪ 'I think I let my voice speed up again' (TP Journal, 5LE) ▪ Noted his 'strengths and weaknesses' as one of the main lessons he learned on the course (TP Journal, 7LE)
William	▪ 'Definitely slow down, I'm away of it it's just very hard in the spotlight. But I will try!' (TP Journal, 2LE) ▪ 'I think it was too teacher-centred' (TP Journal, 3LE) ▪ 'Definite problem with speaking too quickly' (TP Journal, 4LE)
Dave	▪ 'My teaching strategies are probably the weakest area of execution' (TP Journal, 1LE) ▪ 'I need to consider each activity, not just in terms of how students engage with it or how much time it will take, but in how useful it is in any particular point in the lesson' (TP Journal, 2LE)
Laura	▪ 'The two things I have consistently found difficult through teaching ESOL are a) to know how long an activity will take and b) which bits they will find difficult and/or impossible' (TP Journal, 5LE)
Kate	▪ 'I personally feel that I am okay at planning and delivering a lesson but utilizing my materials/activities more effectively are areas where I can develop' (TP Journal, 2LE) ▪ 'Need to give clearer, simple instructions' (TP Journal, 4LE)
Donald	▪ 'I'm giving instructions that are too complex and convoluted' (TP Journal, 3LE)
John	▪ 'Time needs to be used more sparingly' (TP Journal, 2LE)
Carl	▪ 'it is too easily possible to be teacher-centred at times when one should elicit more actively from the students' (TP Journal, 1LE) ▪ 'it can be difficult to avoid getting 'carried away' by one's enthusiasm' (TP Journal, 1LE) ▪ 'However, I found that this [teacher-centred approach] led only to partial success. Where it worked was in motivating and structuring the framework for student to student discussions...Where the approach was less successful, however, was in generating whole class/ feedback interaction between students and teacher' (TP Journal, 1LE) ▪ 'Curtail the introduction drastically and involve the students in discussion earlier on...' (TP Journal, 2LE) ▪ 'The tendency to become focused on one aspect of the teaching at the expense of others' (TP Journal, 3LE)
Rebecca	▪ 'Spent too long on grammar' (TP Journal, 2LE) ▪ 'Time management could have been better' (TP Journal, 2LE)

Table 10.9: Course participants' self-reported awareness of weakness

As Chapter 2 explored, a teacher may gain knowledge of a certain technique or skill but may not believe that it is useful or appropriate for the classroom. For example, one of the CPs, Carl, expressed an awareness of his weaknesses in overly 'free' lesson

planning and teacher-fronted classroom style. However, despite Carl's articulation of self-awareness, his behavior did not change, even in the year following the course (see 10.2.3.1), perhaps due to a lack of desire to change. Singh and Shifflette (1996, citing Berman and McLaughlin, 1978) note a negative relationship between change and a teacher's age and experience and argue that after only five years of teaching, teachers can become cemented in their notions of teaching practice if they lack a spirit of professional development. This may explain Carl's conscious decision to disregard his weaknesses as defined by the course tutors, but it does not explain similar disregard on the part of other CPs. For instance, another CP, Dave, revealed that although he knew his 'instincts' about teaching were not in line with what he was learning on the course, his method of teaching (i.e. teacher-centred presentations) was simply easier, demonstrating that CPs may resist change for a variety of reasons.

A further question is the standards which determine the acceptability of teaching behavior, rendering some practices 'weaknesses' and others 'strengths'. The notion of best practice is justifiably criticized in the literature on teaching methodology (see Prabhu, 1990; Bartolome, 1994; Kumaravadivelu, 1994, 2001), with even the highly praised Communicative Language Teaching method under scrutiny for its misapplication in contexts where rote learning is embedded deeply in the culture. However, one can safely argue that every teacher education course possesses an underlying philosophy of 'best practice' teaching that carries over into how teaching practice is assessed, for example. This is not to say that this is unadvisable. Certainly, it is nearly unavoidable. However, crucial to this discussion is the question regarding whether or not CPs should be expected to change their practices based on a certain standard of strengths/weaknesses. This issue will certainly not be resolved here, although it is currently under discussion under the auspices of such organizations as The Association for the Promotion of Quality in TESOL Education (QuiTE). What is apparent, however, is that teachers will inevitably make personal judgments about what constitutes 'best practice', which may contradict teacher education course content. This seemed true with several CPs at AU, particularly Carl, Laura, and Rebecca, who disagreed with the observing tutors' feedback on several occasions, arguing that their way was best.

Singh and Shifflette offer some advice on these matters, noting that

> Individual change... [is] directly related to personal teaching efficacy in the absence of an organizational pressure for change. Teachers must believe in their competence in order to select practices that are appropriate and effective. (Singh & Shifflette, 1996: 147)

These authors have a valid point; however, the presence of self-efficacy, or belief in oneself, which was noticeably present in most of the CPs by the end of the course, does not necessarily lead to the competence to select appropriate and effective practice. This is, most certainly, one of the weaknesses of the short-term course: there is not enough time for CPs to engage in in-depth examination of the issues of appropriateness and effective practice in a certain context. This will be further discussed in the Chapter 11, where some recommendations will be offered.

10.4.2.5 Discussion

In summary, the CPs exhibited little change during the course in attitudes towards the course and beliefs about teaching and learning, although the data reveals an increase in confidence and ability to see themselves as teachers as well as an awareness of their own weaknesses. Da Silva (2005) offers some insight into why this might be the case. Distinguishing between theoretical and experiential knowledge, da Silva argues that because each teacher's apprenticeship of observation filters the ways in which s/he views and experiences teacher education, teacher trainees often accept only those theories and experiences that are consistent with what they already believe. He notes,

> when teachers perceive that their experiential knowledge is supported by theory, they acquire the theoretical knowledge as part of their professional knowledge without strong conflicts or dilemmas...On the other hand, when teachers' experiential knowledge is contradicted by theory, teachers tend to reject the 'new' knowledge and maintain old practices no matter how logical or sound it could be... (da Silva, 2005: 14-15)

This explanation helps to clarify why the data reveals little change in beliefs and attitudes. The CPs, again with the exception of Donald, used the course, then, as a way to verify their notions about what constitutes good and bad teaching.

Of course, Donald's case is an important piece of negative evidence. The changes he exhibited in beliefs about teaching and learning as well as his shift in teaching behavior point to the short-term course's potential in initiating change. However, as Donald's case was the exception and not the rule, the data points to a need for restructuring and re-thinking of the short course.

10.4.3 Short-term change vs. long-term change

This section will present findings from data from CPs collected via e-mail, follow-up questionnaires, informal interviews, and observation of teaching in the nine months following the completion of the AU CertTESOL course. In addition, data collected via semi-structured interviews with experienced ELT teachers will be presented for a longer-term perspective.

10.4.3.1 Following the course participants

Maintaining contact with the CPs following the CertTESOL course was crucial in understanding their perspectives in hindsight, tracking any development in their attitudes and beliefs, and obtaining information about their career paths. Table 10.10 summarizes how, when, and from whom the follow-up data was collected.

Method of Collection	Date of Collection	Course Participant Providing Data	
Follow-up questionnaire (see Table 10.11 and Appendix C)	End of October, 2005 (3 month follow-up)	Amber Kate Carl Dave	Donald John Rory
Informal interview	Feb. 28, 2006	Carl	
Teaching Observation	Feb. 28, 2006	Carl	
E-mail	August, 2005	Rory	
	October, 2005	Carl John Donald	
	March/April, 2006	William Donald Susan	Amber Dave

Table 10.10: Follow-up data collected from course participants

Not all of the CPs supplied follow-up data; however, by employing a variety of data collection methods (questionnaires, e-mails, interviews), data was collected from nine of the twelve CPs. Table 10.11 contains the questions from a three-month, on-line, follow-up questionnaire distributed by e-mail to the CPs (see also Appendix C). This sub-section will examine the CPs' career paths and development in attitudes towards the course and beliefs about teaching. Finally, data collected during observation of Carl's ELT teaching after the course will be presented.

Career paths

Table 10.12 provides a summary of the ELT career paths of the nine CPs who provided follow-up data. Carl, John, and Sharon began ELT work less than two months after the

course. Amber and Kate started ELT work approximately six months after the course, and the remainder of the CPs (Dave, Donald, Rory, and William) had not begun ELT work as of April, 2006. None of the CPs who started ELT work taught full-time but part-time in a variety of settings. Their jobs included informal conversational English teacher at a health care provider (SureStart) for underprivileged community members (Amber, Kate), academic writing teacher in a university setting (Carl), ESOL in Further Education (Sharon), and part-time teaching assistant at a small non-profit organization (St. Mary's Church and Community Centre) (John). Only John indicated a desire to pursue ELT full-time as a permanent career in the future, despite admitting scepticism of the CertTESOL and 'disillusionment' with the lack of its credibility in the UK. He expressed frustration with his inability to find a full-time, permanent job in the UK, noting, 'It really does seem that the TESOL Cert has zero relevance here in the UK' (John, E-mail, November 29, 2005), adding that he would have to travel abroad if he was truly serious about working in the ELT field.

1. Now that you've completed the Certificate course, have you started teaching ESOL? (If CP answers no, QuestionPro skips to question 6)
2. Please tell me a little about the school where you are teaching. First, what type of class are you teaching? (age, number of students, proficiency level, skills, etc.)
3. Next, is the school where you are teaching solely an ESOL school or does it offer other services as well?
4. How is the teaching you are doing now similar to the practice teaching we did during the Certificate course?
5. How is it different?
6. It has been almost 3 months since we completed the Certificate course. Looking back, which parts of the course were the most valuable to you? Why?
7. What parts of the course were not valuable to you? Why?
8. What, if anything, would you change about the Cert course? Why?
9. If you skipped any of the sessions, what made you decide to skip certain ones and not others?
10. How would you describe your approach to teaching ESOL? What type of teacher do you strive to be and what methods do you strive to use?
11. What elements of teaching ESOL do you feel confident about and which do you feel less confident about? Why?
12. What are your job plans for the next few years?
13. Finally, do you have any plans to pursue additional TESOL training? Why/why not?

Table 10.11: Three-month follow-up questionnaire

None of the CPs expressed much desire to seek further qualification, only John indicating that 'maybe' he would in the future and the rest of the CPs indicating that they would either 'definitely not' or 'probably not' seek further training. This seemed to stem from their disinterest in ELT as a full-time, permanent career. Johnston's (1997) report on Polish EFL teachers reveals that this is a common view of ELT, as a short-term, second-choice, or accidental option. Others (Ferguson & Donno, 2003) have

pointed out that this perspective both contributes to and is partially constructed by the short-term course itself.

Course Participant	Approximate Dates of ELT Work	Type of Institution	Details of ELT work (if any)	Plans for Further Training
Amber	Jan., 2006 - present	Private	Informal Conversational English classes - 1 hour per week	Maybe but probably not
Kate	Jan., 2006 - present	Private	Informal Conversational English classes - 1 hour per week	Not considering it
Carl	Sept., 2005 - present	State	Two Academic Writing Modules - part of an undergraduate degree in ESOL (2 hours teaching per week)	Definitely not
John	Oct., 2005 – Nov., 2005	Private	Approximately 4-5 hours per week, teacher's assistant, non-profit organization, small group of adult males	Maybe
Sharon	Sept., 2005 - present	State	10 hours ESOL at College of FE (former job)	Definitely not (unless employer pays)
Dave	None	N/A	N/A - Possibly to begin working for JET in Japan in Fall, 2006 but not certain	The future '..doesn't include any more ESOL training'
Donald	None	N/A	N/A – no plans to teach ELT at present	'No real need'
Rory	None	N/A	N/A – has abandoned ELT field	'no plans of gaining higher qualification'
William	None	N/A	N/A – Traveled for 6 months after course completion, tentative plans to apply for ELT job overseas	Probably not
Rebecca	N/A – Received no replies to e-mails.			
Laura	N/A – Received no replies to e-mails, traveled to Zambia to teach math, no intention of teaching ESOL			
Matthew	N/A – Received no replies to e-mails.			

Table 10.12: The course participants' ELT career paths

The fact that five of the twelve CPs (with the likely addition of Rebecca, who stated on the course that she would be pursuing ELT work) were working in ELT only months after the course's completion is surprising, given their lack of plans during the course. However, it's important to note that only one CP (John) expressed any desire to make ELT into a permanent career. This reinforces the current view that EFL (and ELT, as well) is less seen as a profession, which typically requires extensive training and

specialized knowledge, and more as a temporary trade or craft occupation, much like waiting tables.

Providing additional insight, Horne argues that until a professional structure is in place 'to attract candidates to a long-term profession rather than a three-year experience, we can hardly be surprised that so few ascend the rickety career ladder via the Diploma or a Masters' (Horne, 2003: 396). His point, echoed by many, is that the weaknesses inherent in the short course are not the real issue. Instead, some argue, problems stem from numerous, unregulated, private sector schools operating primarily as businesses with little interest in fostering teaching development. This attitude of pointing the finger outward (albeit at a serious crisis) may raise awareness of other contributing factors (like the market-driven nature of language teaching) but do not resolve the issues related to the short-term course. Writers like Davis (1990) have begun a much-needed discussion regarding the shortcomings of the short-term course and its contribution to the view of ELT as a 'trade'; however, few have responded.

Long-term change in attitude towards the course

Although many of the CPs' opinions about the course remained the same, some of the CPs changed their attitude after the course (see Table 10.13). This is quite significant, especially considering that other somewhat similar studies (see Borg, 2002, 2005; Baxter, 2003) do not include such follow-up data, which, in this case, reveals some of the long-term effects of short-term courses.

For example, one of the CPs, Kate, said early in the course that she 'didn't understand the point [of the language awareness modules in both the distance learning and the direct contact phase] and found it very difficult to complete' (FN, July 11, 2005). However, in the follow-up questionnaire, she noted, 'The distance learning was invaluable in preparation for the course' (Kate, FQ) and later elaborated in an e-mail, 'It helped prepare me for all the new ELT vocabulary that was used', suggesting that it inducted her into ELT jargon. Some have argued that because teacher education courses present a substantial amount of information to process simultaneously, such processing is lengthy, and new ideas, consequently, take time to 'sink in' (Smith, 2001). Such seemed the case here.

Another example of long-term change was Dave's after-course appreciation of the LA modules and his increased confidence about his explicit knowledge of the

English language. During the course, he described the LA modules as 'boring' and 'unimportant'. However, on the questionnaire, he noted,

> The most valuable aspects of the course, for me, were the grammar modules [phonetics, phonology, and language awareness modules]...By having both the distance learning modules and the follow-up 'test' on Language Awareness, the course literally did just that – made me more aware of language...I feel much more able and confident in using and discussing language... (Dave, FQ)

CP	Valuable Course Elements	Less Desirable Course Elements	Confident/ Less Confident About...
Amber	Teaching practice and feedback	Input sessions	'...grammar rules...this is my weak spot' (FQ)
Kate	Distance Learning	Input sessions	'Confident in my approach and teaching skills, less confident in...grammar points'
Carl	Sharing issues about teaching with tutors and other CPs	'Nothing particular'	Feels very confident in 'every area'
Dave	Grammar modules, practical input sessions, teaching practice	Course was too intense, some input sessions (TESOL websites session) not particularly useful	Confident about explicit LA. 'I don't feel that there is any particular area in which my confidence has fallen'.
Donald	Teaching practice, practical input sessions	Slovenian lessons, 'Profile of a language learner' assignment, distance learning marking was "poor"	Confident in classroom management, less confident in knowing how to pitch teaching to right level
John	Teaching practice	Language Awareness tests	Confident in classroom management, less confident in grammar knowledge
Rory	'Profile of a language learner' assignment, Phonology input	Phonetics and Phonology and Language Awareness tests, some 'deathly boring' input sessions like Culture and Language	Confident about finding teaching materials, planning a lesson – Less confident about teaching grammar points
William	No data provided	No data provided	'Felt a little overblown with the course and was ill prepared, knocked my confidence a great deal" "never quite felt like I was up to it in some ways, but I think that's down to breezing over the actual content and a general winging my way through'

Table 10.13: Follow-up data from course participants (with comments differing from on-course statements highlighted)

Again, for some of the CPs, appreciation and understanding of the usefulness of the LA modules took time. However, since Dave had not yet secured his first teaching post at

the time of offering this data, it's unclear how far this confidence would extend to a real teaching situation.

Another example is Rory's change in attitude towards the phonology input as well as the 'Profile of a Language Learner' assignment, both of which she disliked during the course. She noted both as 'valuable' on the follow-up questionnaire and elaborated in conversation, noting that one-on-one tutoring (not in ELT) provided opportunity to use the skills she had acquired in the 'Profile' assignment. However, she noted that the LA exams were useless and a waste of teaching practice time on the course, again suggesting a preference for the teaching practice.

Finally, for some of the CPs, long-term change meant increasing negativity. William's apparent on-course confidence, evidenced by his statement 'I'm well prepared and the lessons don't scare me anymore!' (TP Journal, 7LE) towards the end of the course, later declined, as evidenced by the following statement in a follow-up e-mail:

> Felt a little overblown with the course and was ill prepared, knocked my confidence a great deal...never quite felt like I was up to it in some ways, but I think that's down to breezing over the actual content and a general winging my way through. (William, E-mail, March, 22, 2006)

It's important to note that William's only on-course statements of confidence were written in his TP Journal, and, as Chapter 10.3 explored, obligatory reflective practice can result in strategic response. However, the possibility that William did indeed lose confidence after the course is not unlikely. Brookhart and Freeman (1992) note the detrimental effects that the harsh realities of the classroom have on novice teachers' overly high levels of confidence. Although William had not begun teaching, his separation from the support of a peer group mimics the situation of many new language teachers, whose first employers may not provide nor encourage such support. As Roberts (1998) writes, 'Some [new language teachers] receive support and a reduced timetable, others will go straight in at the deep end' (Roberts, 1998: 84). Having not yet acquired a post-course support system, William's confidence faltered.

Long-term change in teaching beliefs

The data revealed no observable change in the CPs' beliefs about teaching after the course. Table 10.14 compares statements and overall themes from on-course data with statements from follow-up questionnaires and e-mails. In particular, Amber and Dave re-iterated their belief in the importance of teacher enthusiasm and interesting lesson

content. Kate and John both again noted the importance of choosing content relevant to students' needs. Donald restated his belief in the importance of a student-centred classroom, Rory re-affirmed her belief in the importance of high quality materials, and, lastly, Carl restated his belief in the importance of blending some structured activities with student-led informal discussion.

CP	Beliefs about Teaching in Latter Half of Course (from TP Journal, 7LE)	Beliefs about Teaching After the Course (from FQ)
Amber	'I have always enjoyed communicating with the students and I feel this makes a huge difference to the amount they are willing to engage and interact with you as a teacher and in the lessons as a whole. By engaging the students directly and keeping on referring back to their individual experiences, it adds a personal touch to the lesson and makes for a more positive teaching experience'.	'I want to be an enthusiastic teacher who gets students involved the lesson and keeps their attention by making things interesting'
Kate	'fully prepared/ knowledgeable,' aware of students' practical needs	'Committed to providing excellent teaching sessions that are useful and interesting to students'
Dave	Importance of learner's enthusiasm/ enjoyment as a pre-requisite for learning	'enjoyable yet structured' 'approachable, good-natured teacher who makes it clear that the best way to learn is without trying too hard'
Donald	'need for more student activity compared to my previous teaching experience'	'I've been sold on the need for greater student participation when teaching'
John	Interaction promotes learning, learners motivated by an interesting teacher, Choosing 'relevant, stimulating, and authentic materials'.	'a teacher who stimulates students with relevant, authentic and contemporary materials'
Rory	Focus placed on entertaining activities and 'lovely materials'	'communicative style,' inspiring and appropriate materials
Carl	Informal discussion with some activity, depending on student response	'I strive to use a mix of informal discussion and structured exercises'.

Table 10.14: Course participants' beliefs during and after the course

The lack of change is unsurprising, given that in the nine months after the course, none of these CPs had started full-time ELT employment, and some had not begun teaching at all. Flores (2005: 408) argues that students tend to influence change and that where individuals have limited exposure to students (i.e. in part-time work), change takes longer. Without a confrontation with the complexities and realities of school environments, novice teachers can hardly be expected to rethink their beliefs about teaching and learning (see Guskey, 1986; Hopkins et al., 1994; Fullan, 2001).

Change takes time and is embedded in experience, which these CPs were only just beginning to acquire.

Does this lack of change really matter? As some argue, the focus is and should be on *future* development, giving teachers a proper foundation of survival techniques and skills to achieve gainful employment. After all, 'In a climate where education is subordinate to commerce, there can be little motivation in taking…[a 'Super Cert'] with its commensurately greater fees and the enormous investment of time required' (Horne, 2003: 396). However, this notion of 'spray and pray', as it is sometimes referred to, is, I would argue, somewhat irresponsible. Certainly, we are just beginning to explore the powerful role that teachers' beliefs play in their education; however, resignation is unacceptable. The lack of exploration and critical examination of beliefs exhibited by the CPs in the months following the course, albeit somewhat related to their lack of subsequent teaching employment and lack of professional support, suggests a shortcoming of the short course in its failure to *initiate* change.

Change in teaching behavior

This final sub-section will present data from an informal interview with Carl and observation of his teaching. Approximately one month after the course, Carl was unexpectedly offered a part-time English for Academic Purposes (EAP) position to supplement his part-time lecturing in English literature. At the time I interviewed and observed him, Carl had completed one semester of teaching (two hours per week) and was currently teaching two, one-hour classes each week in academic writing (with a focus on the topic of a multicultural society). He had a total of eight students, five in the first class and three in the next, all of whom were enrolled on a newly-formed undergraduate degree in ESOL.

In the informal interview, Carl revealed that the directives given him to teach his two EAP classes were largely ambiguous, leaving him scope to run the classes as he wished. Receiving no support or mentoring from his colleagues, he also noted that he had not created a syllabus or a week-by-week schedule but instead tried to 'go with the flow', an approach consistent with his teaching practice approach on the course.

When asked what elements of the CertTESOL course he used, Carl laughed, 'I don't have time to use the Cert content' (FN, Feb. 28, 2006) and said he was 'underusing' course content because he had a good teaching approach in place already and didn't need to change. He noted that his class style was mostly discussion and that

'as soon as we get it going, we just run with it...I have diversions but come back to a key point' (FN, Feb. 28, 2006).

Unexpectedly, Carl remarked that what he had taken from the Cert course was an appreciation of 'Running with what comes'. He elaborated, noting, 'Language is like a colander, full of holes so you have to stop and do things' (FN, Feb. 28, 2006), meaning that students were welcome to interject related or unrelated questions at any moment, taking the lesson in any direction. Interestingly, based on the data collected from lecture recordings, the tutors seemed to discourage such a view. The fact that Carl may have used the course to affirm his beliefs is significant and supports the idea that CPs who are not challenged to examine and confront their beliefs about teaching may not change these beliefs, even in the face of contradictory course input.

Observation of Carl's teaching reveals that his post-course teaching behavior was consistent with his on-course behavior. As a previous section explored (see 10.2.1), Carl's on-course teaching style was teacher-fronted with a lecture-format, likely due to his lecturing experience. Examples from my observation field notes can be seen in Table 10.15.

Arguably, Carl is somewhat atypical in that his extensive teaching experience and age potentially made it difficult for the course to influence his views of teaching and behavior. However, the group of CPs in this study included several similar individuals (Donald, Laura, Carl, Sharon, Rory), and past research (Green, 2005) has shown that a significant percentage of individuals who take courses such as the CELTA or CertTESOL have teaching experience prior to enrolment, making Carl's demographic one that should be considered when structuring and implementing language teacher education. As long as individuals see ELT as a 'retirement option', course providers must consider, firstly, if they are willing to accept such individuals as trainees, and, secondly, how a course can best prepare older, experienced teachers.

10.4.3.2 The perspective of experienced teachers

UCLES and Trinity College London do not track CPs (Green, 2005), perhaps for a variety of reasons such as the practical difficulties associated with contacting individuals who often change jobs and move frequently. This project had similar difficulties in that some CPs were impossible to contact, either because they had, as in

William's case, decided to travel for six months, or changed their e-mail address, or decided not to reply.

Theme	Carl's First Class (3 students – 1 hour duration)	Carl's second class (3 students – 1 hour duration)
Lack of student talk	Introduction: Carl talking about informal writing 'See if you can notice some features which are informal and see if you can detect things that are American, not British' Carl then read out the passage – no student talk for first twenty minutes of class Carl said they were running out of time so just listed off the answers, and students wrote them all down (but didn't say which column of answers they should be under)	Students all discussed [first activity] together without prompting, but Carl said wait a few minutes before discussing together then did not allow any further student discussion. Collectively, students talked for less than 5 minutes in the whole hour. At this point, the hour was up – the questions weren't finished – Carl was talking about the EU and then started talking about what they would do next time – Students left without asking questions or speaking
Elaborate explanations offered, resulting in long teacher monologues	Student asked what 'run down' meant – Carl gave an explanation taking 15 minutes – Student asked what 'hemorrhages' meant, Carl asked what it meant to students but waited 1 second before giving a 5 minute explanation Students tried to give examples of American speech, but Carl said their examples were "emphatic ways of speaking" but not examples of American words – He said, "American speech is more emphatic, more explicit" – talked about this for about 12 minutes.	Carl said 'Tell me if you find words that are difficult' – No student response, so Carl started bringing up words and explaining them. Carl then said they have 2 minutes left for activity – but then started 'lecturing' about geography and flowers of Isles of Sicily – talked for approximately 4 minutes about this Carl then asked for answers – students gave 1 or 2 word answers, Carl elaborated, often going on to other topics

Table 10.15: Excerpts from field notes from observation of Carl's post-course teaching

However, the importance of following Certificate course graduates is surely vital if we are to understand what impact, if any, the short course has on the long-term growth and development of ELT teachers. Green (2005), for example, published data collected from questionnaires completed by 478 CELTA participants, and his study constitutes an important step towards tracking CPs. However, his reliance on questionnaires in some ways sacrifices the colorful stories and rich experience of ELT professionals.

This sub-section will therefore explore the stories of six experienced ELT teachers, ranging from four to seventeen years experience in the field. Jane. Mary. Gail, Steven, Abigail, and Emma all completed a short-term TESOL Certificate course early

in their career. Although only two of the six teachers completed the CertTESOL[14], their data is included not to demonstrate a direct, one-to-one comparison with the CPs at AU but rather to shed light on how more practiced teachers view short, pre-service ELT teacher education in hindsight. The many similarities between the Trinity CertTESOL and UCLES CELTA as well as other short courses modelled after these allow some comparisons to be made. During interviews, individuals were asked only general questions (i.e. Why did you decide to enrol on the Cert course? What elements stand out most in your mind?) since asking for specific details would've been appropriate only if one-to-one comparisons were being sought.

That said, elements of the experienced teachers' stories and reflections on the short course are consistent with Green's (2005) findings on CELTA-trained teachers, similarities which will be discussed briefly. In summary, the veteran teachers' experiences, while in some ways mirroring those of the twelve CPs at AU, provide the additional perspective of individuals who have made ELT into a career. Table 10.16 provides a summary of both their demographic information and the categorization of their responses, which will provide a framework for discussion.

Falling into ELT

All six of the experienced teachers interviewed originally entered ELT as a short-term career option. Their stories mirror the motivations of the CPs on AU's CertTESOL course, who intended to travel, to widen their career options, or to fill the gap between university and real life. Examples from the experienced teachers' stories about their entry into the field reveal the following sub-categories of enrolment motivation:

1. lack of career choice:
   - Emma: 'Um, basically, after I finished my degree...I wasn't sure what I wanted to do...Dad paid for me to do the Trinity Certificate...I think Dad maybe thought it was more useful than I did. I always said in school I'd never be a teacher...' (AR, Feb. 9, 2006)
   - Steven: 'Initially, I just needed a job' (E-mail, April 12, 2006)
2. accidental entry:
   - Mary: 'I studied linguistics...did some teaching as a volunteer as part of that...found that I really loved teaching...' (E-mail, April 20, 2006)
   - Gail: 'Teaching was not really what I had in mind, but when I walked in the

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[14] As Green (2005) notes, Certificate holders are very difficult to track. For this reason, convenience sampling of the experienced teachers was employed, meaning that teachers with a variety of 'Certificate course backgrounds' were interviewed. This study's results must therefore be interpreted in light of this limitation.

door [of the Berlitz school in Italy], the secretaries immediately had me apply for a teaching training course...I was accepted, trained, hired, and sent off to teach full-time...' (E-mail, April 15, 2006)

3. funding for travel
   - Abigail: Her brother's friend '...had taken a module in TEFL, and was out in Japan, and through speaking to her, I thought, hmmm, that'd be a nice way to see the world and probably at that time, a way of putting off my decision [to choose a permanent career]' (AR, Nov. 25, 2005)

4. can't remember
   - Jane: 'I can no longer locate exactly what thoughts or plans prompted me to do this. No idea' (E-mail, Feb. 8, 2006)

These reasons for entry into ELT are typical, as Warford and Reeves (2003) point out, noting common phrases used by novice teachers, such as 'I fell into it', 'out of the blue,' 'into my lap,' 'luck,' 'haphazard,' 'in limbo.' This suggests that initial ELT teacher training, as distinct from other types of teacher training (see Brookhart & Freeman, 1992; Waites, 1999), attracts very few *career teachers*, individuals who see ELT as a career. This impacts the level of change and development that such courses may have on individuals interested mainly in superficial knowledge of ELT (see Roberts, 1998), despite the fact that these same individuals may later decide to make ELT into a career. Describing ESL/EFL as an 'unstable, marginalized, impermanent occupation' (Johnston, 1997: 707), Johnston's (1997) study on seventeen Polish EFL teachers confirms that this field lacks a professional structure and tends to leave initial trainees without much guidance. Providing further support to this study, Waites (1999) writes,

> The typically late career entrance and the problematic and transitory nature of the profession are two factors contributing to the development of TESOL career patterns which, to a large degree, are different from those typical of school teachers. (Waites, 1999: 444)

McKnight (1992) further comments on a lack of professionalism within the field, noting that the view of ELT as part-time, temporary work prevails. It seems that the ease of entry in ELT courses and their short duration contribute to this lack of professionalism and the subsequent lack of *career teachers*, as one of the experienced teachers, Steven, pointed out, noting that he had recently left the ELT field, feeling 'no feelings of attachment since so little commitment had been required of me in training' (Steven. E-mail. April 12, 2006).

Teacher	Teaching Experience	Falling into the ELT Field (reasons for entrance)	Teaching Experience prior to Training	Teacher Education Credentials	Mixed Impressions of Cert course	Basic Tools and Confidence: Impact of Cert on career	First teaching job	Present teaching job	Importance of Support and Professional Development
Jane	15 years	Can't remember the reason. Last minute decision	None	Cambridge Cert TEFL in UK (1978); RSA Diploma, M.A. in ICC	Didn't understand what they were talking about	Opened the door to first teaching job	Private language school in Paris	.5 post as EAP instructor at a UK university	N/A
Mary	8 years	Via interest in Linguistics and a volunteer teaching experience	A few hours of volunteer teaching	Trinity Certificate in UK	A lot of hard work, some useful elements but largely inadequate	Gave her confidence	Private language school in Berlin, Germany	Independent ELT consultant	"I was really lucky that I had such a supportive boss."
Gail	15 years	Got into ELT by accident (saw sign 'Native speakers needed' and offered services, not knowing it was teaching)	8 years prior to CELTA	International House CELTA in Italy (8 years experience teaching before enrolment); MA in AL/ESL	Positive impression	"gave me the knowledge to articulate what I knew to be right and to add new principles of good teaching..."	Berlitz school in Italy	PhD student and EAP teacher at a community college in the US	N/A
Steven	3-4 years	'Just needed a job', recommended by a colleague	Approx. 1 year	Berry College 5-week Summer Intensive TESOL Cert program (USA)	'It's only lip service.' Has trouble remembering content	N/A	Private language school in the US	Currently working in special education	N/A
Abigail	14 years	A way of spending time abroad	None	University of Aston independent Cert course (one month); DELTA	Tremendous dynamics and a lot of fun	Gave her a taster and basic tools for first job	Private language school in Greece	EAP teacher at a UK university	"I got tremendous support from colleagues"
Emma	17 years	Her father paid for her training	None	Trinity College TESOL Cert (1989)	'It was murder.' Has trouble remembering.	Growth in confidence, important as a start for first job	private language school in Derby, UK	Independent language teacher (works for private clients)	"being surrounded by other teachers helps [in the early years]"

Table 10.16: Experienced teachers' demographic information and response categorization

Mixed impressions of the course

The experienced teachers noted both good and bad impressions of their short-term course experiences, some more positive (Gail) and others including mainly negative memories (Jane). Despite some differences, however, they tended to focus on similar issues like the value of the practical elements of the course, their increase in confidence as teachers, the lack of language awareness input, and for some, little to no memory of course content. These patterns echo Green's (2005) survey of experienced teachers regarding their opinion of the value and relevance of CELTA course content, prompting praise such as increased confidence and knowledge of lesson-planning and criticism such as insufficient grammar input and the need for more teaching practice. Other themes in the stories of the experienced teachers used in this study include the view of the short course as a 'basic tools kit' and the view that the short course should be longer. The following paragraphs will focus on these patterns in the data and discuss the conclusion that the teachers' impressions of the course were partly influenced by their ELT teaching experience or lack thereof prior to enrolment.

Four of the experienced teachers described the short-term course as stressful and difficult, using phrases like 'murder', 'too short', 'hard work', and 'alien and scary'. Jane's description of the stress and hardship she experienced is perhaps the most poetic:

> I was...busy struggling to make sense of this rather alien and 'scary' environment, this new discourse community where people spoke another language: teaching English to foreigners...It was a leap in the dark...My overriding feeling was...not really knowing what they were talking about, nor what was expected of me...I had no inner frame or schema to decode the feedback given. This is no doubt one of the reasons I have no specific memories but only diffuse emotional memories of the four week experience. (Jane, E-mail, Feb. 8, 2006)

In this way, these teachers' responses echo the experiences of the CPs on AU's CertTESOL course, who spoke of their stress on the course. And, again, these responses echo Green's study, which notes that experienced teachers often characterize the CELTA course as 'intense' or 'intensive' (Green, 2005: 10). However, the two remaining experienced teachers in this study, Steven and Gail, offered quite different impressions. Steven described the course as 'easy' but 'a hassle' (referring to the long commute to the course provider every day) and Gail used the word 'invaluable' and listed the skills she'd learned

(i.e. how to time activities, the importance of varying activities, how to animate reading texts, etc.).

Steven and Gail's prior ELT teaching experience may explain their differing impressions of the short course, suggesting that for a more seasoned teacher, the course content is more manageable. Green (2005) confirms this, pointing out that when asked to offer advice to potential CELTA candidates, one of his respondents noted, 'Try out teaching for a while before…you do the CELTA course. I was able to absorb and digest what I learned better than those who had never taught' (Green, 2005: 11).

Another surprising theme in the experienced teachers' stories is limited memory of the course. Emma, Jane, and Steven admitted a loss of memory of course content and of specifics regarding their course experience. Emma noted, 'Well, to be honest, it's so longer ago, I can't remember that much about the course itself' (AR, Feb. 9, 2006). Steven noted, 'I'm really having trouble remembering what I studied…' (E-mail, April 12, 2006), and Jane suggested that her lack of teaching experience caused difficulty in 'decoding' the course content, making her remember little of her course experience. For these three teachers, their memory loss seems connected to a view of the course as a first step, something to finish and move on from. This appears confirmed by other statements they made, for example, Emma's comment that the Cert is 'important as a start'.

Beyond these basic impressions, when asked which parts of the course were most valuable to them in their career, they noted particularly the practical elements of the course such as the teaching practice and feedback. Mary replied, 'Classroom practice and feedback were the most useful things for me' (E-mail, April 20, 2006), Emma mentioned 'the really practical things really' (AR, Feb. 9, 2005), Gail pointed out 'the practical classroom-based pedagogical notions' (E-mail, April 15, 2006) she had acquired, and Abigail answered that the course had provided 'the skills we got of actually coping in the classroom' (AR, Nov., 25, 2005). Mary, Emma, and Abigail also mentioned the value of increased confidence, again echoing the experiences of the CPs on AU's course.

All six teachers described the course as a lesson in survival, a 'start'. However, the teachers had differing opinions regarding whether or not such a focus was justified. For example, Emma noted, 'It puts you in the right direction' (AR, Feb. 9, 2006), and for Abigail, this focus on 'the basics' was the right decision. She argued, 'It's a difficult

decision, when you've only got a four week course, what's important...I think what it did was to give you a taster and basic tools which would get you through' (AR, Nov. 25, 2005). Gail shared their sentiment, arguing that any theoretical shortcomings were overridden by the fact that trainees were given the basic tools to survive their first job. However, she also noted that her prior teaching experience had likely made her course experience different from that of pre-service teachers. Steven and Jane, on the other hand, were fairly negative in their assessment of the 'basic tools' focus in the course design, Steven noting,

> It's only lip service. In an ideal world, a teacher would have a semester or more to practice teaching ESOL...Most short-term programs allow bad teachers to get teaching credentials. This is a very real problem. I don't know any good answers for it. (Steven, E-mail, April 12, 2006)

Steven's criticism of short courses could perhaps apply to other teacher education courses as well, such as the PGCE. But his insight is particularly applicable to the short course, where the apparent difficulty in failing suggests that some may slip through the cracks, the CELTA or CertTESOL thus losing credibility with potential employers. As one of Green's (2005) respondents noted, 'Be aware that ELT is a popular option for a huge number of people and you will need more than a Bachelor's degree, CELTA and enthusiasm to land a decent job' (Green, 2005: 11).

Baxter's (2003) study on ELT teacher education sheds further light on the view of the short course as a 'basic tool kit'. She provides excerpts from interviews with DELTA candidates, noting her respondents' criticism of CELTA for its focus on basic skills. For example, one respondent noted the tutors' simplistic black-and-white discouragement of 'teacher-talk', which the respondent discovered later to be valuable in certain situations. Baxter writes about her respondents, 'it is evident that that experience did not equip them with any tools with which to be reflective or analytical about their own practice', (Baxter, 2003: 156), arguing that the short course, with its focus on basic practical skills and techniques, establishes and perpetuates the view that working without a theoretical basis for one's practice is acceptable. This is a serious but perhaps well-founded accusation, which criticizes a privilege of practice. As the short course is founded on such a privileging, this questions the very notion of such a course.

A final observation mentioned by the experienced teachers in their 'career stories' was the lack of language awareness content on the short course. Mary pointed out that

despite time constraints, the lack of language awareness (and sometimes inaccurate input, in her opinion) was a drawback. Jane noted that she acquired only 'a few basic grammatical structures', and Abigail offered a story about a course tutor, who told the trainees that they would have to teach themselves grammar due to lack of on-course time. Again, Green's (2005) study provides similar data, one of his respondents' writing, 'Grammar learnt on CELTA, whilst really useful, was the tip of the iceberg' (Green, 2005: 10). However, some of his respondents complained of too much focus on grammar, and although Green does not elaborate on possible reasons for this criticism, the data collected from the CPs at AU suggests that stress may render some of the course content undesirable to CPs.

In summary, the teachers who enrolled on the course *without* teaching experience related memories of stress, high work load, and increase in confidence, experiences similar to the CPs at AU. Those who enrolled *with* prior teaching experience did not share the anxieties and lack of confidence but nevertheless related some similar impressions, such as the lack of language awareness input, the value of the practical elements of the course, and the view of the course as a 'basic tools kit'. Green's findings point to a similar discrepancy between the course experiences of those with teaching experience and those with none, noting that 'those lacking EFL experience [prior to training] were significantly (p<.05) more likely to feel that the course had failed to prepare them adequately for their first job...' (Green, 2005: 8).

Career paths: The importance of support and development

A final theme, the importance of professional development and support from employers and colleagues, emerges from the experienced teachers' career path stories. Nearly all the teachers related 'horror stories' about overseas ELT jobs where the employer, in most cases a private language school, offered no support and no opportunities for professional development. Abigail, for example, discussed jobs in Greece and Japan, both early in her career. She noted, 'The company [in Japan] I was working for was even more business orientated than private schools in Greece. They were not interested in the quality of teaching...very, very disheartening, very unsettling' (AR, Nov. 25, 2005). She compared these jobs with a later, more positive work environment in Poland, where her employer and colleagues supported and encouraged her to complete a TESOL Diploma course. Emma

related a similar experience in Japan, referring to her position there as 'a glorified tape recorder'. She noted, 'if you've got any sense, you'll realize that this [the short course] is not all the training that you need and that the best way to become a teacher is to teach, in many ways'. She elaborated later, 'Not everybody who has done the Certificate course necessarily is going to go on to be a competent teacher because they may not get the right kind of support' (AR, Feb. 9, 2006).

The literature on teaching and teacher education stresses the importance of support in the first year of teaching. Fullan (1982) writes,

> Research on implementation has demonstrated beyond a shadow of doubt that these processes of sustained interaction [with a new teaching innovation] and staff development are crucial... (Fullan, 1982: 67; see also Bolster, 1983; Guskey, 1986; Lamb, 1995; Roberts, 1998)

Without this early support, novice teachers are likely to return to old practices and ways of thinking. The prevailing 'spray and pray' approach which provides little segue from teacher training to employment also helps to explain the low percentages of individuals who complete the DELTA or Diploma. Where little atmosphere of professional development exists and where no career structure is in place, the low retention of ELT teachers is unsurprising. Granted, efforts are made by some course providers to follow their participants. International House in Barcelona, for example, has experimented with short, follow-up courses for newly 'certified' teachers, which have proved very popular and constitute a step towards providing some support for new teachers. However, this should not be left to the individual provider but needs to form part of the basis for improvement of the short course.

Five of the six experienced teachers in this study argued that the short-term TESOL Certificate course is not a complete course and needs supplementation by further professional development and support from colleagues and employers. These are essential for new teachers in the field but are rarely present in ELT teaching environments, particularly overseas, as the experienced teachers' stories reveal. One of Gail's comments that the Cert course was adequate for classroom teachers' training but not for researchers' was the exception and reveals a disturbing dichotomy between teachers and researchers that, unfortunately, seems to be a prevailing view among many in the field. Gail noted,

> I really feel that CELTA courses are worthwhile experiences for all ELT practitioners who plan to spend a significant part of their professional lives in the classroom. For

administrators, material designers, and researchers, there's not enough information, but for classroom teachers, the program is complete. (Gail, E-mail, April 15, 2006)

This dichotomy between teachers and researchers is not the view of Trinity College London nor of UCLES, whose literature indicates that, after the initial Certificate course, additional professional development, teacher training, and support are essential for ELT professionals. Further, this view did not prevail amongst the experienced teachers in this study, whose stories reveal additional teacher training and development beyond the TESOL Certificate (see Table 10.16). However, as previously mentioned, the low percentage of individuals who acquire a Diploma and become experienced ELT teachers suggests a lack of long-term commitment in the field and a belief that, as Gail's comments also reveal, the Certificate course is enough to 'get by'. 'Such a view is perhaps inevitable when the Certificate is an independent qualification in its own right with no requirement to take the Diploma...' (Davis, 1990: 18). For those who have only short-term ELT career plans, it may be enough to 'get by', but this perspective does a disservice to career ELT teachers.

10.4.4 Summary and discussion

This chapter has explored the nature of teacher change, typical patterns of development in novice teachers, ways in which the CPs at AU modified their views, etc., and, finally, the perspective of experienced teachers. This discussion has confirmed that change is a gradual and difficult process for teachers (Bolster, 1983; Guskey, 1986), given their apprenticeship of observation. Further, perhaps only few teacher education courses can expect to see the final stages of change (see Fullan, 2001) in their duration. That said, the short-term course, although it successfully increases self-efficacy and knowledge of basic teaching skills and techniques, does little to bolster the first stage of teacher change, *initiation* (Fullan, 2001). Although CPs engage in reflective practice of sorts, the reflection is used in this culture, as Baxter argues,

> as a means of reproduction, of channelling teacher behaviour into normalised practice. Its role in surfacing tacit knowledge and developing an understanding of contextualised practice is severely limited by the environment in which it takes place and the sense that the 'practical' is what really matters. (Baxter, 2003: 159)

Again, the prioritization of practice over theory, justified by course providers as a necessity in a short time frame, limits opportunities for initiation of change since CPs are

preoccupied with the teaching practice and the acquisition of immediately applicable techniques and skills. Such an attitude both influences and is constructed by the course itself.

Admittedly, Donald's beliefs about teaching and learning underwent a surprisingly dramatic shift during the four week on-site phase of the AU course. His early resistance to the course tutor's input regarding the importance of a student-centred classroom and his repeated negative comments directed at the majority of the input sessions suggest that the change occurred primarily because of the practice teaching, where Donald saw evidence of the positive results of a learner-centred approach. Revisiting Guskey's (1986) claim that teachers' beliefs change due to observed positive classroom evidence, one might argue that Donald's case proves that a focus on practice over theory is justified since practice seemed to initiate change in this case, not theoretical input. However, Donald's case represents the only deviant case. For this reason, although the short course has the potential to influence experienced and confident teachers, whose maturity and classroom expertise offers them a greater capacity for self-initiated reflection and experimentation, the short course does not sufficiently challenge the majority of trainees to evaluate or investigate their beliefs. This will be further explored in the next and final chapter, where recommendations will be offered for course development.

SECTION III: SUMMARY OF RESEARCH FINDINGS AND IMPLICATIONS

Chapter 11: The Short TESOL Certificate Course: Better than Nothing?

11.1: Introduction

Some pre-service ELT teacher trainers argue that the Certificate course is intended only as an initial 'basic tools kit', stressing that a successful short-course trainee is only 'TEFL-initiated' and not 'TEFL-qualified'. The prevailing attitude seems to be that after the short course, those with the 'right' attitude and a 'real desire' to become a good teacher will seek professional support and development. While a 'basic tools kit' is what the market currently demands, this perspective limits the short course's professional appeal, given the course's temperate entrance qualifications, lenient standards, and high pass rate. Cursory reading of an on-line ELT teacher education discussion board in Yahoo (http://groups.yahoo.com/group/ttedsig) is evidence of this view, including such statements as 'It takes a good while to become a good teacher- just as it takes a while to become a good plumber', confirming the view of ELT as a trade, not a profession, and 'Although "bad" teachers might pass the four-week course, they will generally know that teaching is not for them and thus will not pursue it any further'.

This thesis has presented evidence in favor of a radical shift in initial TESOL teacher education, moving away from viewing ELT as a trade. However, one cannot pretend that drastic change is likely in this sector, primarily due to the powerful market forces that drive it and the vulnerable position of course providers. As Horne notes,

> Short entry-level courses were and are a response to the market-drive nature of ELT in the private sector, and increasingly in the public sector...Since these courses feed into the market, their format, i.e. length, price, and technical depth, should reflect the need of this market, flawed though it is. For example, salaries are often low; therefore, the relatively cheap and rapid entry route, while not perfect, is at least appropriate. (Horne, 2003: 396)

Horne's view seems to dominate the sector of short-term training (see Davis, 1990). What follows is a 'make the best of it' attitude, adopted by many excellent course providers, AU included, whose hands seem tied by higher-up decision makers. But despite the limited

position of individual course providers, I believe such a view to be short-sighted and perhaps even neglectful of the role that teacher educators potentially have in influencing the ELT (and primarily EFL) market they feed into.

This final chapter will make explicit the limitations of this project, summarize its main findings, and explore possible implications as well as offer recommendations towards the improvement of short-term initial teacher education in ELT and towards further research.

11.2: Limitations of the Study

Several limitations to this study impact its implications on teacher education, short-term or otherwise, namely, its focus on only one short-course provider, the impact of stress and time restrictions on data collection and analysis, and, finally, inability to contact all of the CPs in the nine months following the course's completion.

First, some of AU's course tutors have argued that the peculiarities of this particular CertTESOL provider, such as its distance learning component, limit generalization of the experiences of the AU CPs. Beyond this concern, some could reasonably argue that the uniqueness of every course provider renders the experiences of any group of CPs unique and thereby difficult to generalize beyond a specific context. For this reason, some burden is placed on the reader to determine to what extent the course at AU resembles other short-term teacher education contexts. However, given descriptions of short-term teacher trainees and teacher training contexts in the literature, AU's CertTESOL course and thus the experiences of AU CPs are typical in some ways. For example, the CPs at AU are similar in age, motivation for enrolment, and educational background to other CPs in the literature (see Borg, 2002: 420). Further, the experiences reported by the CPs at AU, while certainly unique in regards to the CPs' specific life histories, were similar to those reported in other comparable studies (see Davis, 1990; Borg, 2002; Baxter, 2003). In addition, the standardization of the CertTESOL course by Trinity College London, made explicit throughout this thesis, leaves room for some generalization across course providers.

The issues of researcher and CP stress and time limitations were major obstacles during this project. Although these were foreseen to some extent, the work load and timetable required by the CertTESOL course resulted in a change in data collection

methods. In particular, I was unable to conduct regular interviews with CPs, instead relying on unstructured individual and group interviews (often informal conversations) between input sessions and in the library. Had one-on-one interviews been possible, my data might have revealed that the CPs were more reflective than informal conversations revealed. That said, I supplemented the audio-recorded data with the CPs' TP Journals, filling many of the holes in the data.

Time limitations also constrained data analysis during the course. Had my timetable been less full, I would have been able to review data in detail each evening and formulate a daily plan to fill the holes in my data. However, as this not the case, I documented every event I was privy to and used every available source of data (i.e. recording all input sessions) and delayed narrowing and focusing on emergent themes. This delayed focus limits this study's findings, which might have either been strengthened with further probing or weakened with deviant cases. However, such a delay was unavoidable, given the framework of participant observation.

A further limitation of this study was inability to establish CPs' pre-course beliefs. Some researchers (Richards, Ho, & Giblin, 1996; Borg, 2005) have successfully used pre-course interviews and questionnaires to determine the extent of a teacher education course's impact on teacher beliefs, allowing for some direct comparison to be made between pre-course statements (supposedly uninfluenced by course content) and post-course statements. However, the specific context and aims of this study made it impossible and, actually, disadvantageous to collect pre-course data (see Chapter 10.4.2). For example, even weeks before the start of the on-site phase of the course, the CPs had already been influenced by course input in the form of the Distance Learning. That said, the findings of this study must be examined with this limitation in mind.

A final limitation of this study was the difficulty encountered in contacting all of the CPs in the nine months following the course's completion. This is an issue reported by others in the literature (Davis, 1990; Roberts, 1998) and is common in the field of ELT, where individuals enter and leave the field and change jobs frequently, making them difficult to track. Nevertheless, the lack of follow-up data from some of the CPs limits this study's implications, requiring further research following ELT teacher trainees.

11.3: Summary of Findings

At a recent conference in the UK, a well-known plenary speaker announced the importance of training ELT teachers faster and cheaper to meet growing demand. Calling this view into question, the crux of this thesis is a questioning of the brevity of the two most popular entrance methods into the field, CELTA and CertTESOL, not because shortness in itself is the heart of the problem but because Certificate course duration curtails the depth and coverage of the training. For example, the themes which emerge from this study, such as CPs' preference for practical input and lack of observable critical evaluation and examination of beliefs leading to overall lack of change, stem at least partially from the short course's brevity and reveal that the set of ideas underlying the short course is fundamentally flawed. The following paragraphs will summarize the main findings of this study.

First, as Chapter 8 revealed, some short course providers, including AU, have increased the rigor of the short course in creative and critical ways. AU, for example, requires a distance learning component and offers a wider range of input session topics than can be found on a typical course provider timetable. Further, by means of input sessions and one-on-one advice, for example, AU strove to prepare CPs for the teaching practice. That said, the confines of the short course, as outlined by Trinity College London, limited even AU's praiseworthy intentions in that the CPs were required, due to time constraints, to teach very early in the course and, as a result of stress and anxiety, failed to appreciate many of the positive efforts of the tutors, including the many valuable handouts the tutors offered on various topics.

Second, the enrolment motivation, age, prior teaching experience, and overall attitude of the CPs were crucial determining factors in each CP's course experience (see Chapter 8.3; 10.3). These factors demand further consideration by course developers and providers, and the current 'one size fits all' approach to initial ELT teacher education fails to meet the specific needs of several demographics, i.e. those with career aspirations vs. those without; experienced teachers vs. novice teachers.

Third, as Chapter 9 detailed, the length of the Certificate course places restrictions on course content, promoting a dichotomization of practice and theory and necessitating a prioritization of practice both from the perspective of the course provider and the CPs, who

may resent more theoretical course content in light of a hectic timetable and heavy work load. The CPs' pre-existing preference for practice teaching with which they arrived was bolstered by the course's structure, objectives, and implementation. This prioritization of practice suggests to the CPs that theory and practice can be dichotomized and that engaging in practice without understanding the theory, personal or otherwise, which underlies it is acceptable. Even when explicitly told the contrary, as they were at AU, CPs are implicitly taught on the short course that professional development is a luxury rather than a necessity.

Fourth, Chapter 10 revealed the short course's focus on behavioral change, evidenced primarily by the teaching feedback sessions, at the expense of examination and critique of beliefs. Again, this focus stems from the course's short length, where lack of time obliges an emphasis on survival skills and limits the potential of trainees' future development, assuming the view that change in belief tends to precede change in behavior. Although the short course has the potential to influence behavior, changes among the majority of CPs at AU were restricted to those consistent with existing beliefs about teaching and learning, the overall framework being thus unchallenged.

Fifth, as Chapter 9.3 explored, some attempt is made in the CertTESOL course to encourage reflective practice, which has the potential to make explicit trainees' beliefs about teaching and learning and begin the process of teacher development. However, deeper reflection is impeded by a focus on reflections on classroom behavior and procedure (again, revealing a prioritization of practice and behavioral change). Fundamental issues regarding the appropriateness of requiring assessed reflective practice, particularly of those unaccustomed to it, further constrains this attempt to encourage reflection on beliefs. However, even beyond these issues is, again, the brevity of the short course and the stresses that accompany it, which limit the potential of reflective practice from the outset, since trainees may resent its inclusion in an already burdensome workload.

Finally, interviews with experienced teachers (see Chapter 10.4) and follow-up interviews with and questionnaires from the CPs at AU reveal that many have fond memories of the short ELT teacher training course and see it as a crucial first step. In particular, some of the CPs at AU made comparatively more positive comments about some course elements after the course was over than they did on-course. That said, the two final sources of data reveal a noteworthy gap between the CPs' lack of desire for further

professional development and the experienced teachers' insistence that the short course necessitates future supplementation by professional support and development. While success stories exist, many CPs leave the course with the attitude that initial teacher education is all they need, an attitude which, though not supported by course tutors, is nevertheless implicit in the short course.

11.4: Implications and Recommendations

This project did not aim to critique the CertTESOL course offered by AU specifically. Instead, by adoptiong a trainee's perspective at one short course provider, I hoped to reach some generalizations about the experiences of CPs on a short TESOL training course and the course's influence on CPs' beliefs about teaching and learning. Given Trinity's standardization requirements and their similarity with those of UCLES, these aims are feasible and allowed for an appraisal of a set of ideas (the notion of a short course) rather than a set of individuals. As stated previously, the course I attended, such as it was within its limits, was generally well taught and thoughtfully designed and went above and beyond what was required to do the best possible within the parameters given by Trinity.

That said, the short course, even one professionally put together, has many clients and cannot and should not be immune from scrutiny, including academic scrutiny. The following sub-sections present the implications of this study for both short-term ELT teacher education and teacher education more generally.

11.4.1 Implications and Recommmentations for short-term ELT teacher education

This chapter has discussed several issues related to the brevity of the short course, including a prioritization of practice over theory, problems with assessed reflective practice, a 'one size fits all' mentality, and a focus on behavioral change. Their primary implication is that the short course is unlikely to improve unless it is restructured and, ideally, lengthened. At present, trainees' pre-existing preference for teaching practice is bolstered by the fact that there is simply no time for them to focus their attention elsewhere during the course. As such, the course tutors' attempts to include some theoretical and

language awareness input are well-meant but not necessarily well-received. Trainees emerge from short-term teacher training with confidence well in place in most cases but perhaps lacking in an understanding of the foundations of informed language teaching, an explicit, in-depth knowledge of language, and a view of the field as a profession worthy of long-term commitment. These conclusions strike at the very heart of short-term teacher education and reveal the need for a radical shift in thinking about ELT teacher education, one that recognizes it as a profession requiring substantial commitment from potential ELT teachers. Simply put, the four week course, even when supplemented by a distance learning component, is not sufficient to adequately prepare ELT teachers for the classroom or to impress them with the importance of professional development.

One of the primary arguments in favor of the short course seems to be that individuals will not enrol on an ELT teacher education course that requires more of their time and money. In the event of such increased commitment, the argument goes, the gap between the number of available ELT teachers and the number that the market needs would widen significantly. In fact, I can't count the number of times I have heard that the short course is simply a product of the existing market demand, rather than a force itself that influences, at least in part, the direction of such demand. However, arguments of a 'chicken-egg' nature regarding the interplay between market forces and the short-term course are futile. Instead, recognition is needed of the likelihood that the design and implementation of the short course are, in fact, *contributing* to a lack of professionalism in the field and thus need to be adapted.

Adding to these issues which stem from the short course's brevity and which bring into question the notion that the field of ELT needs to be training teachers 'faster and cheaper', an even deeper issue impacting the future of ELT teacher education is global development and change in who is learning English and what their motives are for learning it. As more countries view English as necessary for economic progress, the age of English language learners continues to decrease, and a new generation of individuals with no need for further English lessons is reducing the need for traditional EFL for adolescent and adult learners (Graddol, 2006). In a publication sponsored by the British Council to explore the future of English, David Graddol (2006) notes, in particular, that ELT is seeing a decline in traditional EFL, which focuses on grammatical accuracy, native-speaker-like

pronunciation, and literature, and a rise in English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) and Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL). Graddol writes, 'Where the global importance of languages used to depend on the number and wealth of native speakers, now the number of people who use it as a second language is becoming a more significant factor' (Graddol, 2006: 64). He later argues that because the function of English is no longer that of 'foreign language', the non-native, bilingual speaker with pragmatic competence in intercultural contexts is much more in demand than the traditional 'native speaker', who often cannot provide the skills needed to function within a global market and may actually be seen as a problem, carrying 'cultural baggage' (p. 114). Simply put, countries such as China and South Korea are increasingly looking for regional English teachers rather than monolingual, often mono-cultural teachers from the US or UK.

This impacts the field of ELT teacher education tremendously. Short-term models of ELT teacher training, in particular, may become obsolete because they rely on a traditional model of EFL and privileging of native speaker status (see Ferguson & Donno, 2003). Although attempts are made at some short course providers, such as AU, to incorporate course content on teaching young learners, these are typically short sessions. And unless more drastic changes are made to the scope of initial ELT teacher preparation courses, these may face a future of limited market appeal restricted mainly to individuals interested in teaching English to refugees and immigrants in the UK and US. That said, UCLES now provides a Certificate in English Language Teaching to Young Learners (CELTYL), constituting recognition of a changing global market. However, being another manifestation of the short course, the CELTYL may be problematic in ways similar to the CELTA and CertTESOL, thus contributing to further decline of the professional value of the short-term course.

Beyond the short course, other ELT teacher education courses which operate under similar performance-based philosophical assumptions are also under threat in the changing market if they do not change to meet the shifting needs of English language learners. Increasingly, the role of language learning context, pragmatic competence, and bilingual proficiency is taking center-stage in the global market of ELT, requiring that ELT teacher education promote the acquisition of such knowledge, skills, and awareness.

Although the market force that both creates and is influenced by the short course may be shifting, it is nevertheless powerful in its current state. Consequently, 'renegade' course providers are unlikely to offer their own version of the short-term course given the prestige that accompanies the names CELTA and Trinity CertTESOL. Further, recent discussions with senior personnel at Trinity College London reveal that the short course is more likely to go 'back to basics' than it is to expand in content and length. I have heard mention of the creation of a more streamlined CertTESOL course, one that avoids theoretical content and focuses solely on practical teaching techniques and procedures. While this would at least be a change that is consistent with the philosophy of the short course, it would not solve current problems but would only further imbed in trainees the notion that a firm theoretical foundation for the activity of teaching is dispensable and fails to take into account the wider contextualization and development in the field of ELT as a whole.

11.4.1.1 Recommendations for long-term improvements

With the previous discussion in mind, I offer the following suggestions with regard to the short course. First, to satisfy individuals with no long-term intentions regarding ELT, a weekend 'taster' course could be offered to provide travel-minded individuals with basic survival skills. Such individuals are less likely to care about the decreasing levels of pay available to teachers with limited expertise and are likely to be satisfied with the low level of commitment such a taster course would require. I am aware that some such weekend courses are already offered at various locations in the UK, and widening the gap of time and money between a 'basic skills' course and a Certificate course could potentially require that employers and potential teachers take the Certificate more seriously than they do at present.

Further, the one-month ELT teacher training course should be lengthened substantially. Davis (1990) offers the radical suggestion of merging the short course with the Diploma course, perhaps by using a credit-system where one receives a teacher education 'degree' only after the Diploma has been successfully completed. Davis also suggests, at the least, the incorporation of a three-module system, distance learning being the first module, the four-week course being the second, and an induction, supervisory

period in the trainee's first job being the third and final module. However, as Davis admits, such an induction module would be quite difficult to implement and would require a level of communication and cooperation from first employers that has not historically been possible. A potential solution could be relying on the trainees' cooperation and participation rather than the employers'. This in mind, I suggest a rough idea for a three-phase model, which combines Davis' suggestion of a merging of the Certificate and Diploma courses and features I have seen used for M.Ed. courses in the United States. The new, lengthened course would require a commitment of approximately one and a half years. Potentially, requiring this greater time commitment from trainees could increase the likelihood of their willingness to extend their training to the induction period. Crucial to this proposal is an adoption of a broader definition of the term 'teacher development', which presupposes that activities like reflective practice can allow pre-service teachers to begin 'exploring the options for change, deciding what can be achieved through personal effort and setting appropriate goals' (Head & Taylor, 1997: 18; see also de Sonneville, 2007).

1. Phase One: A Distance Learning Period (3 months)
    Purpose:
    - To give background to and to prepare the participant for the direct-contact phase
    - To develop awareness of need for pragmatic and linguistic Competence
    - To foster a broader understanding of the word 'theory' which includes both conceptual and perceptual knowledge
    Content:
    - Reading of texts and articles (basic language learning theory and language awareness content)
    - Responses to the reading
    - Interviewing professionals in the field
    - Guided observation of available professionals
    - Autobiography of past experience
2. Phase Two: Direct-Contact Phase (6 months)
    Purpose:
    - To connect theoretical background with teaching practice
    - To discuss observation of professionals with peers
    - To gain extended practice teaching experience
    - To connect language awareness with classroom practice
    Content:
    - Guided teaching practice (paired with an experienced professional)

- Project work exploring connection between beliefs and practice
- In-depth language awareness modules (moving beyond basic introduction)
- Presentation of project work to peers

3. Phase Three: Induction Phase (9 months)
    Purpose:
- To further connect learning with classroom practice
- To instill a spirit of professional development
- To contextualize practical and theoretical knowledge

    Content:
- Action research project
- Weekly correspondence with course tutors

In addition to this new and extended program, further possibilities could be an undergraduate degree in TESOL, incorporating both theoretical input and teaching practice in a two to three-year degree program. Further, an M.A. that moves beyond the traditional research focus could provide further options for individuals with a B.A. in a different field who want to pursue ELT. Currently, the University of Warwick provides such a degree, combining research skills with practice teaching, and other universities could follow suit to the great improvement of the field.

Beyond this increase in time and depth, the field of ELT teacher education in the UK and worldwide needs to take into account the growing need for bilingual ELT teachers with pragmatic and intercultural communication competencies and an understanding of how these affect classroom teaching methodology and materials. Toward that end, the standardization of ELT teacher education in accordance with one prescribed model should be eliminated if teachers are to be prepared for local contexts. The future of ELT teacher education might include, then, providers devoted to preparing teachers for specific regions of the world or specific populations. Further description is certainly beyond the scope of this thesis, but alternative models of ELT teacher education must be considered if the field of ELT is to meet the needs of language learners around the world.

11.4.1.2 Recommendations for short-term solutions

Despite the need for fundamental changes to the short course, some areas of potential improvement within the current structure exist. These include the following modifications, which will each be discussed further in turn:

- a thoroughly integrated distance learning component
- reflective practice which accounts for problems related to assessment
- the integration of theoretical and practical content in input sessions
- restructuring of CPs' initial observation of teaching
- discussion of beliefs and attitudes in teaching practice feedback
- carefully controlled practice teaching class size
- more emphasis placed on professional development

First, requiring a distance learning component that is *thoroughly integrated* with direct-contact course content will potentially improve the rigor of the course and provide opportunity for a better integration of theory and practice. Again, as Chapter 2.2.1 argued, a broader definition of theory is needed in the short course, which includes both conceptual and perceptual knowledge. Given its present time restrictions, the conceptual theoretical base (i.e. theory and generalizations from educational research) can hardly be expanded, though this would be desirable in a longer course. However, the ways in which theory is presented could be changed to the great improvement of the course. For example, course providers could provide opportunity for CPs to make ongoing connections between theoretical content in the DL component and practical content in the direct contact components, particularly by discussing and reflecting on the particulars of the classroom context. CPs could also be presented with other real classroom contexts and asked to evaluate the social and cultural factors as well as external policies which might influence teaching practice.

Second, although the inclusion of reflective practice in any short teacher education course is highly ambitious, some improvements to the type and structure of reflective practice could be made. For example, it should be introduced slowly, with only the barest minimum of reflection required on the part of initial teacher trainees. Possibilities could include timetabled discussions with other course participants where perhaps a one-word prompt could be introduced by a tutor who either leaves the room or monitors from a distance. In addition, given the personal nature of reflective practice, course participants should be actively involved in choosing its format. Finally, RP should never be assessed in its early stages. Individuals should be given opportunity to gain confidence and awareness in a non-threatening atmosphere; only after they have acquired significant experience with engaging in reflective practice should any assessment be considered. That said, course

tutors should maintain an *ongoing* discussion with CPs about this assignment rather than confining review and/or assessment of reflective practice to the end of the course.

Third, great care should be taken when choosing the number and type of input session topics. Many of the CPs at AU felt intimidated and overwhelmed by the input sessions. A possible suggestion is to integrate theoretical sessions with practical sessions, thereby encouraging CPs to see the connection between practice and theory and to discourage CPs from singling out theoretical sessions for skipping or feeling negativity towards (see Johnson, 2006). Tutors should place greater emphasis on exploring and discussing broader definitions of 'theory' with trainees, promoting the understanding that all practice is founded on theory, whether personal or conceptual. This could be put into practice in a multitude of ways, including using video-recorded classroom teaching to stimulate discussion on underlying teaching philosophy and to encourage comparison between generalizations from research and a specific educational context. In particular, case studies could be used to promote awareness of context and level of appropriateness of specific decisions based on personal beliefs or otherwise.

Fourth, the purpose of teaching observation is to encourage trainees to think critically about their own teaching and begin engaging in development; thus, the method of structuring this course component is crucial and should be carefully considered. The present system used at AU requiring the CPs to fill out observation forms proved somewhat flawed in that CPs did not take it entirely seriously (see Chapter 9.3.2.1) and were, in some cases, untrained in the skills of observation and thus unable to benefit from this task. Improving upon this system, CPs' observation of experienced teachers might include, as Day (1999) suggests, observation of video-recorded classroom time (see also Ramani, 1987). At AU, some opportunities like this occurred during the Distance Learning modules; this could be enhanced by allowing CPs and tutors to view video recordings together, the tutors pausing the video at times to encourage group discussion and reflection.

Fifth, the teaching practice component could be improved in several ways. For example, the observation of experienced teachers could be preceded by a brief group discussion on observation skills to prepare CPs to reflect more critically. This preface to the teaching practice could be followed by a guided discussion, with tutors present, on the ways in which the observed teaching was consistent or inconsistent with CPs' beliefs about

good teaching practice. In this way, the process of teacher development can be encouraged and cemented at the pre-service stage. In addition, the practicum class size should be carefully controlled. A large number of students can potentially overwhelm CPs, as it did at AU. Lastly, feedback sessions (presently used to assess teaching practice) should be structured so as to include brief discussion of CPs' beliefs and attitudes about teaching and learning to supplement the current practice of focusing on teaching behavior.

Finally, although some course providers, AU for example, offer input sessions specifically on in-service professional development, greater attempts must be made to bridge the gap between initial teacher education and novice teachers' first jobs. Potentially, course providers could award additional credits to individuals who completed post-course follow-up forms related to their first teaching positions and who submitted progress forms filled out by the employer for the first six months of teaching. These are only a few suggestions and may not suit every course provider, but there is a need to instill a greater desire in CPs for professional development.

11.4.2 Broader implications

This thesis, although intended to look at the experience of trainees on a short-term ELT teacher training course, also has implications for teacher education in general. First, it adds to the body of knowledge on teacher development, reinforcing the understanding that change is a gradual and lengthy process and unlikely to be seen on a short teacher education course. The CPs at AU underwent little observable development in behavior and beliefs, instead growing primarily in confidence and procedural knowledge about teaching. This supports a model of change where development in belief precedes development in behavior and suggests that teacher education must extend its attempts to bring to light pre-service teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning in the hopes that change is at least initiated, if not fully realized, during teacher education. This thesis also supports the conclusion that the structure, content and assessment methods of teacher education programs may not always optimally promote teacher development. As a result, these components require careful scrutiny and planning with awareness of the nature of teacher development in mind.

Second, this thesis contributes to the literature on the experience of the Practicum component. It reinforces current understanding of the priorities of teachers-in-training, who often arrive with a preference for practice teaching well in place, and reveals that the Practicum is often a source of great stress. This suggests that teacher educators should not only carefully consider the importance of confidence-building on courses but also take steps to ground confidence in a theoretical foundation with in-depth understanding of subject content, classroom procedure, and awareness of personal beliefs.

Third, especially through data collected from experienced ELT teachers, this study speaks to the importance of professional development and a supportive environment for teachers, particularly those in early stages of their career. Professionalism is lacking in all types of teacher education; some have reported that 70% of novice teachers do not receive additional training after taking their first position (Timmis, 2000, cited in Borg, 2002: 425). This thesis reveals that despite efforts to make explicit trainees' options regarding professional development and despite statements describing initial training as 'only a first step', teacher educators often unconsciously send a contradictory message by means of course content, structure, and assessment.

Fourth, this thesis exposes the problematic nature of required reflective practice, namely, that requiring individuals to be open and honest in the context of assessment tends to provoke strategic response and often hostility. Although reflective practice is a vital component of teacher education, it should never be assessed in its early stages and should be introduced slowly and cautiously with the understanding that it requires great critical skill and expertise that some may never be able to achieve.

11.4.3 Further Research

This chapter has thus far concluded that short-term teacher education must undergo a radical shift if it is to overcome its present shortcomings. I cannot pretend that this is likely to happen unless further research is undertaken to support such conclusions and draw further attention to the outcomes of the Certificate course. In particular, further participant observation research is needed in the context of other CELTA and CertTESOL course providers to shed light on the extent to which the course at AU is representative of others in the field. More specifically, a team of researchers has the potential to investigate this area

of teacher education more thoroughly, given the time and stress limitations that restrict data collection when only one researcher is present. In addition, more expensive, longitudinal studies which follow ELT teachers beyond their first year of teaching are needed. At present, there is little research that has documented ELT teachers' mass exit from the field. More work is needed on tracking down teachers and their development in their first posts and thereafter. Finally, as previously stated, alternative models of initial ELT teacher education need to be designed and tested by researchers and teacher educators interested in changing ELT teacher education to meet shifting global needs.

11.5: Closing Remarks

Some might wonder what John Haycraft would make of such widespread use of his short-term teacher training model, which has far surpassed its original use as a brief teacher orientation program to his own ELT schools. But despite the short course's present status, the points argued in this thesis and in other similar works suggest that its future is uncertain and that it may soon be found lacking in light of the changing global status of English and native speakers. Although it is doubtful that teachers will ever demand a more high-risk form of teacher education which challenges their beliefs, perhaps a changing market will force positive adjustments leading to the improvement of ELT as a profession beyond its present status as a trade.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Research Participant Consent Form

RESEARCH CONSENT FORM
An Ethnography of Short-Term TESOL Teacher Education
July, 2005

Valerie Hobbs, Researcher
English Language and Linguistics Student
University of Sheffield
vhowardhobbs@hotmail.com
0114 263 1989

Gibson Ferguson, Ph.D., Supervisor
Department of English Language and Linguistics
University of Sheffield
g.r.ferguson@sheffield.ac.uk

You are invited to participate in a research study which will take place starting July, 2005. This form outlines the purposes of the study and provides a description of your involvement and rights as a participant. Please take time to read it carefully, discuss with others if you wish, and ask me if there is anything not clear or if you would like more information.

(Purpose) I am a PhD research student conducting ethnographic research on short-term TESOL Teacher Education. I am taking the Trinity College TESOL Certificate Course and hope to gain insight into the day-to-day experiences of trainees, the expectations trainees have about the course, and how they are changed as a result of it.

(Description) During this study, you will be asked to participate in weekly, brief, taped individual interviews concerning your personal experiences with the Trinity course as it progresses. Each interview will last approximately 15-20 minutes or less. You will also be asked for some demographic information (gender, age, etc). In addition, I will be asking brief questions after each practicum session which will last only a few minutes, and I will be recording my observations (both of myself and of the other participants) as the course progresses. Finally, I will be contacting you at several intervals after the course is over (3 months, 6 months, and 12 months) via e-mail to record your retrospective opinions about the course. Your participation will require approximately 20-30 minutes of your time each week.

(Potential harm) There are no known harms associated with your participation in this research. You are encouraged to ask any questions at any time about the nature of the study and the methods that I am using. Your suggestions and concerns are important to me; please contact me at any time at the e-mail address/phone number listed above.

(Confidentiality)
1. Your real name will not be used in the written case report; instead, you and any other person and place names involved in your case will be given pseudonyms (or you can choose your own pseudonym) that will be used in all verbal and written records and reports.

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2. No audio tapes will be used for any purpose other than to complete this study, and will not be played for any reason other than to complete this study.

(Participation) Participation is completely voluntary. It may be discontinued at any time for any reason without explanation and without penalty. You have the right to negotiate the inclusion or exclusion of any data collected from you during the study.

(Consent) I have read the above form, understand the information read, understand that I can ask questions or withdraw at any time. I consent to participate in this research study.

_____ Date:
Participant's signature

_____ Date:
Researcher's signature

Appendix B: Demographic Questionnaire

Demographic Questionnaire
"An Ethnography of Short-Term TESOL Teacher Education"
July, 2005

Valerie Hobbs
English Language and Linguistics Student
University of Sheffield
vhowardhobbs@hotmail.com
0114 263 1989

Thank you for your willingness to contribute to this research project and for taking the time to complete this questionnaire. Your answers will help me to choose participants for my research and will also give me insight into why you chose to attend the Trinity TESOL Certificate course.

This questionnaire will take approximately 5-10 minutes to complete. Please return this questionnaire to me by DATE.

Instructions for completion:
Please write your answers clearly in the spaces provided.

Name and Contact Information

1. What is your name?

_____

2. What is your e-mail address?

_____
(Please list the e-mail address you check most frequently.)

3. May I contact you at this e-mail address to further discuss your answers? _____

Age

4. What is your current age? _____

Educational Background

5. What is the highest level of education you have achieved? _____

6. Have you had any previous TESOL teacher training? _____

    If **NO**: Please proceed to the next question.

    If **YES**: What kind(s) of TESOL training did you complete and where?

_____

_____

Language Background

7. Is English your first language? _____

> If **YES**: Please proceed to the next question.

> If **NO**: Please list your first language and any additional languages you speak fluently.

> _____

> _____

Current Employment

8. What is your current occupation? _____

Teaching Experience

9. Have you ever worked as a teacher? _____

> If **NO**: Please skip to question 11.

> If **YES**: For how long? _____

>> AND

> Which subjects and age levels did you teach?

> _____

> _____

10. Have you ever worked as a teacher of English as a Second Language? _____

> If **NO**: Please proceed to the next question.

> If **YES**: For how long? _____

>> AND

> In what context did you teach? (i.e. British university, etc.)

> _____

> _____

Reasons for attending Trinity Certificate Course

11. Please state briefly why you chose to attend this course and what you hope to achieve by completing it.

_____

_____

_____

Thank you again for completing this questionnaire. If you have any comments or concerns about this questionnaire, please feel free to contact me at the e-mail address or phone # at the top of the first page.

Appendix C: On-line Follow-up Questionnaire

Hello:
You are invited to participate in a follow-up survey to the Trinity Certificate Course. In this survey, you will be asked to complete a survey that asks questions about your opinion regarding the course as well as where you are now! It will take approximately 15 minutes to complete the questionnaire.

Your participation in this study is completely voluntary. There are no foreseeable risks associated with this project. However, if you feel uncomfortable answering any questions, you can withdraw from the survey at any point. It is very important for me to learn your opinions.

Your survey responses will be strictly confidential. If you have questions at any time about the survey or the procedures, you may contact me at 0114 263 1989 or by email at the email address specified below.

Thank you very much for your time and support. Please start with the survey now by clicking on the **Continue** button below.

1. Thank you for taking the time to complete the following questionnaire. Your input and answers are the most important part of my research. Without you, my research would not be possible! So please be completely honest and as clear as you can be in your answers. Thanks again for your much appreciated input.

2. What is your name, please? *

3. Now that you've completed the Certificate course, have you started teaching ESOL?

○ Yes

○ No (Choosing this answer causes QuestionPro to load question #8)

4. Please tell me a little about the school where you are teaching. First, what type of class are you teaching? (age, number of students, proficiency level, skills, etc.)? *

5. Next, is the school where you are teaching solely an ESOL school or does it offer other services as well? *

[ ]

6. How is the teaching you are doing now similar to the practice teaching we did during the Certificate course? *

[ ]

7. How is it different? *

[ ]

8. It has been almost 3 months since we completed the Certificate course. Looking back, what parts of the course were the most valuable to you? Why? *

[ ]

9. What parts of the course were not valuable to you? Why? *

[ ]

10. What, if anything, would you change about the cert course? Why? *

[ ]

11. If you skipped any of the sessions, what made you decide to skip certain ones and not others?

[ ]

12. How would you describe your approach to teaching ESOL? What type of teacher do you strive to be and what methods do you strive to use? *

[text input box]

13. What elements of teaching ESOL do you feel confident about and which do you feel less confident about? Why? *

[text input box]

14. What are your job plans for the next few years? *

[text input box]

15. Finally, do you have any plans to pursue additional TESOL training? Why/ why not? *

[text input box]

16. Thank you again for your help! Without you, my research would not be possible. May I contact you via e-mail to clarify your answers if needed?

      ○ Yes   ○ No

Appendix D: Course Timetable

Timetable: Preliminary weekend	
Saturday July 2nd	Sunday July 3rd
10.00 Welcome and Introduction to the Course Team	10.00-12.00 Lesson Planning: Teaching structures
10.30-11.30 Timetable & assignments 11.45-1.00 Intro to the Teaching Component	
1.00-2.00 LUNCH	12.00-1.00 LUNCH
2.00 - 3.30 Communicative language teaching	1.00 - 3.00 Lesson Planning: Teaching Functions
3.30 - 5.00 Stages of the Lesson	3.00 - 5.00 Lesson Planning Reflection: Writing linguistic objectives and prep. for Teaching Events

Week 1

Monday 4th	Tuesday 5th	Wednesday 6th	Thursday July 7th	Friday July 8th
9.45 - 10.15 Registration	9.00 - 10.30 Teacher Liaison meeting.	Half Study Day (10.30 - 12.30 Duty tutor,)	9.30 - 10.45 Slovenian 2	9.30 - 11.15 Techniques for teaching grammar.
10.15 -11.15 Aids and materials	10.30 - 11.45 lesson plan checks			11.30 – 12.45 Slovenian 3
11.45 -1.00 Teaching techniques - pair and group work.	11.45 – 1.00 Slovenian 1		11.15 - 12.45 Profiling an English Language Learner (12.45 – Meet Profilees)	
1.00 - 2.00 LUNCH	1.00 - 2.15 LUNCH	12.15 - LUNCH	1.00 - 2.30 LUNCH/MEET PROFILEES/ TEACHER LIAISON	12.45 - 1.45 LUNCH
2.00-3.00 Study Skills Suite LC Learning Centre Induction 3.00-3.30 CIS Induction	2.15 - 4.15 Classroom Language and Management	Half Study Day	2.30 - 4.15 Evaluating Coursebooks	1.45 - 3.30 Developing Speaking Skills
3.45-5.45 TP preparation : finding the materials.	4.15 - 5.30 TP preparation			3.30 - lesson preparation, Private study time, teacher liaison,
6.00-8.00 p.m. Observe classes	6.00-8.00 Observe classes		4.15 - Private study time	
			6.00-8.00 Team Teach	6.00-8.00 Team Teach

Week 2

Monday 11th	Tuesday 12th	Wednesday 13th	Thursday 14th	Friday 15th
9.30 – 10.45 Slovenian 4	9.30 – 10.30 Slovenian 5	Study Day Duty tutor 11.30 - 1.30	9.30 - 10.30 TP prep Final lesson plan checks <u>THURS</u> 10.15 - 10.45 SBT	9.15 - 11.00 Pre-reading + seminar Developing writing skills
	10.45 – 11.45 Slovenian 6		10.45 - 12.30 Techniques for Teaching Pronunciation Skills SBT	10.45 - 11.45 Slovenian 8
11.00 – 12.15 Voice production. 12.15 FINAL lesson plan checks for Monday <u>Hand in LA test</u>	11.45 – 1.00 SMT, TP Prep, Seminar reading time			12.00 - 1.00 Analysis of profile data.
12.15 - 1.30 LUNCH + profiling time	1.00-2.30 LUNCH + Profiling Time		12.30 - 2.00 LUNCH/final profiling time	1.00 - 2.00 LUNCH
1.30 - 3.00 TP Prep, Seminar reading time	2.30 - 3.45 Contrastive Analysis Pre- Reading + seminar		2.00 - 3.15 Teaching technique: Types of Feedback	1.30 — 3.15 ** Mid-Course Tutorials (15 mins each) <u>(1 – 1 teaching opportunity</u>
3.15 - 5.00 Developing Reading Skills 5.15 – 5.45 <u>final</u> lesson plan checks for TUESDAY	4.15 - 5.15 Phonology Revision seminar: [hand out P&P tests]		3.30 - 4.45 Slovenian 7	3.15 - 5.15 Developing listening skills.
6.00-8.00 Solo Teaching	6.00-8.00 Solo Teaching	6.00-8.00 Solo Teaching	6.00-8.00 Teaching	6.00-8.00 Teaching

Week 3

Monday 18th	Tuesday 19th	Wednesday 20th	Thursday 21st	Friday 22nd
9.15 - 10.45 Cultural Awareness	9.30 - 11.30 Teaching vocabulary	9.00 - 10.30 Careers in TESOL	Study Day Finalise profile. Lesson planning for level changes (Mon/Tues)	9.00 - 2.00 TP Preparation & Liaison for Level Change Duty tutor 11.00 - 12.30 . BY 11.00 - hand in profiles Customer Services
	11.45 - 1.00 Using dictionaries	10.30 - 12.00 The Internet in TESOL		
11.15-1.00 Alternative Models for Lesson Planning: ARC, ESA & NLP		12.00 – 12.30 Level change info..		
1.00-2.00 LUNCH + Profiling Time	1.00- 3.00 LUNCH + Profiling Time	1.00 - 5.15 Half Study Day		
P & P tests to Customer Services desk by 2.00 p.m.	- 3.00 TP prep and reading time/ 1 – 1 lesson teaching opportunity.			1.30 - 3.00 Techniques for Using the Video
				3.15 – 4.45 An overview of EFL Exams
3.30 Drama Techniques and Role Play	3.15 - 5.15 Using Games in ESOL			
6.00-8.00 Teaching	6.00-8.00 Teaching	6.00-8.00 Teaching	6.00-8.00 Teaching	6.00-8.00 Teaching

Week 4

Monday 25th	Tuesday 26th	Wednesday 27nd	Thursday 28th	Friday 29th
9.30-12.30 Teacher Liaison time	9.30 - 12.00 Psycholinguistics	9.30-11.00 SMT/Lesson preparation/ assignment preparation	+ TP Preparation / BLW preparation	09.00-3.30 Trinity College Moderation
		11.00 - 12.30 Materials interviews (15 mins each)	11.00- 12.30 Varieties of English	
12.15-1.15 LUNCH Hand in journals by 1.00	12.00-1.00 LUNCH	12.30- 1.30 LUNCH	12.30- 1.30 LUNCH	LUNCH
1.15-2.45 Testing and Evaluation	1.00 - 2.30 Teaching Young Learners Part 1	1.30 - 3.00 Teaching Young Learners Part 2	TIMES TO BE DECIDED Best lesson workshops Group A	1.30 - 3.30 Best lesson workshops Group B
3.00 – 4.00 Teaching Large Monolingual Classes	2.30 - 3.45 Grammar presentation	3.00 - 3.45 Project Work in TESOL : pre-reading + seminar		
4.00 - 5.00 ESOL curriculum HMT	3.45 - 5.00 Lesson preparation (Weds/Thurs lessons)	3.45 –	Trinity College Moderation	3.30 End of Course meeting
6.00-8.00 Team Teaching	6.00-8.00 Team Teaching	6.00-8.00 Solo Teaching	6.00-8.00 Solo Teaching	FREE

Appendix E: Sample Timetable from another Course Provider

A Typical Day

The mornings provide trainees with a range of perspectives on the learning/teaching process. Input sessions with the two course tutors cover the main areas of teaching methodology, language awareness, phonology and so on. Observations of experienced teachers allow trainees to see these principles and approaches in action, while a series of lessons in an unknown foreign language encourages them to see things from the learner's point of view. The afternoons are devoted to actual teaching practice.

Course days begin at 9.00 a.m. (on days marked * and # below) or at 9.15 a.m. on other days. Mornings include two input sessions with a short break between them and a slot for supervised lesson planning from 12.15 to 12.45 p.m.

Week One	Session One	Session Two
Monday	Intros and basic factors in language learning	First lesson in a foreign language & feedback
Tuesday #	LA 1: form and function	Receptive skills 1: basic procedures
Wednesday *	LA 2: present tenses	Teaching vocabulary 1
Thursday #	International Phonetic Alphabet	Lesson planning
Friday	Presenting language 1	Checking meaning

Week Two	Session 1	Session 2
Monday	Restricted pronunciation practice	Classroom management
Tuesday *	From R to A: communicative practice	Individual counselling tutorials
Wednesday #	Receptive skills 2: reading texts and tasks	Teaching vocabulary 2
Thursday	The materials project: preparation	LA 3: past time and timeline
Friday	Coursebook evaluation	Errors and oral correction

Week 3	Session 1	Session 2
Monday	Syllable stress and schwa	Receptive skills 3: listening texts & tasks
Tuesday #	Boardwork & check learner profile	Rhythm, stress & intonation
Wednesday *	LA 4: future time	Authentic speaking
Thursday #	Songs in ESOL	V.S.O. talk
Friday	Individual counselling tutorials	Working in ESOL

Week 4	Session 1	Session 2
Monday	LA 5: conditionals	EFL exams & testing
Tuesday #	Teaching one-to-one classes	Games in ESOL
Wednesday	Writing skills	Teaching Business
Thursday	MODERATOR DAY	
Friday	Final tutorials	Closing session

* = Lesson in unknown foreign language: 9.00 - 9.50 a.m.
\# = Observation of experienced teacher: 9.00 - 9.50 a.m.

Criterion Grid for Assessment of Teaching Practice Journals

↓Grade Scale Aspect & Weighting➔	Clarity of Journal (30%)	Quality, Quantity and Analysis of Progress as a classroom practitioner (40%)	Quality of Insight for Learning & Teaching issues(15%)	Ability to prioritise areas for improvement (5%)	Degree and Quality of Reflection in the Journal as a Whole(10%)
A (70%+) (Distinction)	The journal is very reader friendly with full use of explanation and exemplification where appropriate. Very clear style	There is very ample evidence of progress and this is very coherently discussed and analysed	The student demonstrates a high degree of insight gleaned from completing the journal	Excellent ability to organise areas that require improvement in following lessons	Excellent ability to reflect constructively on teaching events and feedback
B (60-69%) (Pass)	The journal reads well. The style used is good and most things are explained clearly	There is a good amount of evidence of progress and this is discussed and analysed well	The student demonstrates a good degree of insight gleaned from completing the journal	Very good ability to organise areas that require improvement in following lessons	Very good ability to reflect constructively on teaching events and feedback
C (50-59%) (Pass)	The journal's style is generally fair but at times more explanation and development are called for	There is adequate evidence of progress and analysis of this is reasonable	The student demonstrates a fair degree of insight gleaned from completing the journal	Good ability to organise areas that require improvement in following lessons	Good ability to reflect constructively on teaching events and feedback
D (40-49%) (Pass)	Clarity is adequate but no more. There are a number of things which are not properly explained	There is just sufficient evidence of progress. Discussion and analysis are not always coherent	The student demonstrates an adequate degree of insight gleaned from completing the journal	Fair ability to organise areas that require improvement in following lessons	Fair ability to reflect constructively on teaching events and feedback
E (35-39%) (Narrow Fail)	There is little overall clarity to the journal. Many things are not sufficiently explained or developed	There is insufficient evidence of progress and discussion and analysis both suffer from little coherence	The student demonstrates little or very limited insight from completing the journal	Poor ability to organise areas that require improvement in following lessons	Poor ability to reflect on teaching events and feedback
F (below 35%) (Fail)	There is no real sense of clarity to the journal	There is no, or virtually no evidence of progress. Discussion and analysis lack any coherence	The student demonstrates no insight at all from completing the journal	Little or no ability to organise areas that require improvement in following lessons	Little or no ability to reflect on teaching events and feedback

Appendix G: TP Journal Excerpts

Extract 1: Observation Form - Matthew

Use this sheet with
the first lesson you
observe.
Part 1: 6.00 – 7.00
Part 2: 7.00 - 8.00

Certificate in TESOL
Observation of live classes - focus sheet 1

Date 4/7/0 5

> Please complete this sheet during or after the first lesson you observe,
> and then file it at the front of your teaching practice journal.

Part ONE 6.00 - 7.00 p.m.: This observation sheet focuses on classroom language

1. Teacher language:

	Yes	No		Yes	No
Pace faster than expected?		✓	Voice louder than 'normal'?	✓	
Pace slower than expected?		✓	Vocabulary modified?	✓	✓
Pace about the same?	✓		Structure of sentences modified?		✓
Discourse markers used? *2	✓		Pronunciation modified?		✓

Additional comments:

2. The language of instructions.

	Yes	No		Yes	No
Were they clear?	✓		Were there comprehension checks?	✓	
'Staged'? (one thing at a time)	✓		Did students need further clarification?	✓	
Were they repeated?	✓				

Additional comments:

3. The teacher's voice qualities

	Yes	No		Yes	No
Was it clear?	✓		Varied pitch/pace/tone?	✓	
Use of emphasis and stress?	✓		Authoritative?	✓	✓

Additional comments:

---

[2] Discourse Markers – help the students through the class, words like 'OK?' 'Now' 'Right' to signal to students that something has ended or about to begin, or to check comprehension.

PART TWO : 7p.m. - 8.p.m. This sheet focuses on various aspects of class management:

4. Proportion of teacher-fronted to student-centred activities in whole lesson.
(Your estimate):........50/50........
Comments?

5.   Room Layout

	Yes	No		Yes	No
Was the arrangement of furniture suited to the activities undertaken?	✓		Was it rearranged at all at any time in the lesson?		✓

Further comments?

6.   Interaction Modes:

	Yes	No		Yes	No
Pair work	✓		Teacher-student interaction	✓	
Group work	✓		Melee (all students involved in random interaction)		✓
Class in whole group			Students working alone	✓	

Further comments.

7. Types of feedback.

	Yes	No		Yes	No
Teacher eliciting	✓		Students re-group to share information.	✓	
Students in presentation		✓	Work displayed/circulated	✗	✓
Other (say what)					

Further comments:

4. In a single sentence please note the most important lesson you learned from this observation opportunity.
Some students may be shy and reluctant to become engaged in student activities. They may need to be encouraged to participate.

5. Discuss with your peers: were your observations similar? If not where did you disagree?
Our observations were the same

Extract 2: Team-teach Lesson One - Laura

(F/T)   LESSON ONE (Team teach, 120 minutes)
SECTION 1: Pre-lesson

1. What are your *objectives* in this lesson? (What do you want the learners to achieve?) *Give details of primary language focus, skills development focus, vocabulary focus (as appropriate.)*

Reading an extended text + making notes on it + discuss findings from the text.

2. How are the stages of the whole lesson linked together to meet the overall objectives? (*Do this in note form*)

- Introduction - prediction of text - note taking -revision

b) checking in pairs - feedback - more note taking -

jig checking - feedback - game to finish with

this links to objective of

Unit 4 of term which has led.

3. How are your materials going to help you to achieve your objectives?

OHT introduce subject. Flower - can anybody find the link? Text - correct.

4. How will you know that your objectives have been achieved?

From while class feedback as to whether students can answer the questions set

5. Which part of the lesson are you *most confident* about and why?

The introductory + preparation + general class - I do it
with the here in my lecturing

6. What are you most *looking forward to* in this lesson and why?

The intrinsic interestingness + intelligence of the
students.

SECTION 2   After the lesson:

Complete this section after the lesson but <u>before</u> meeting the tutor for feedback.

1. *The Lesson Plan:*
Did the lesson go to plan?   Yes   No ⟨ Almost ⟩
If not, say what was changed and why.

Timing was fine: students didn't take notes on the
task they just read and remembered.

2. *Actual Execution of the Lesson:*
Which parts were you particularly pleased with and why?

How students got more content animated on the
lesson went on: hope some bit of English teaching
on the subject took place

Which parts were you less happy about and why?

The supposed objectives didn't really take place. But I think this was fairly irrelevant

What did you most *enjoy* about teaching this lesson?

Real buzz about this group of students, they are re enthusiastic + appreciative.

3. *Focusing on the Learners:*
How far were the objectives achieved? How do you know?

I'm not sure how many notes they took (by observation). They seemed to all gain a lot from the lesson though

How would you characterise the learners' overall response to the lesson? *(interested, responsive, bemused... ?)*

Increasingly responsive, chatty, enthusiastic, keen to chat to me + thank me after. Seemed motivated all the way though.

How would you characterise the learners' overall response to *you?*
(did you create a good rapport? were they responsive to you? hostile? friendly?)

Very responsive and excellent rapport.

4. *The lesson in hindsight*
What, if anything, would you change about this lesson – and how?

Maybe change the objectives!

What general conclusions can you draw from this lesson with regard to lesson *execution*? *(methodology, strategies, management ....)*

i think i'm fairly happy

What is the single most important point you learned about each of these?

- yourself as a teacher

I talk too fast when i'm nervous.

- your learners

they are very intelligent.

- classroom teaching

it's just the same as teaching maths!

SECTION 3. After the discussion with the tutor:

1. The discussion:

How far did the observer's opinions coincide with your own?

He placed more emphasis on the importance of fulfilling the objectives than i did

What did you find most instructive about the feedback?

How fulfilling my objectives should be more important than the student experience in these lessons

What, if any, further modifications might you make to the lesson plan
or execution in the light of your discussions?

Be very careful about what I write down as objective

2. *Looking to the next teaching event:*
Think about the elements of your lesson which you identified as being
successful. How can you build on this success in the future?

Build on the rapport I have with the students - once they've
decided they like you, teaching becomes easier

Think about the elements of your lesson which you identified as
being less successful. What do you intend to do to reduce the risk of
having similar problems in the future?

I didn't regroup students as previously in the class there had
been no single language group - but this time there was so I
should have

SECTION 4   Summary Lesson 1 *Classroom language*
Summarise the **main** things you have learned about classroom language from
this lesson and the discussion with the tutor.(200 - 300 words approx)

I found the language input straightforward - I have long's
teaching experience, and have always had non-native English
students in the class, so I'm very happy with that and
the observing tutor was too.
I found in the lesson how much the students appreciate
choral repetition of simple words they find confusing. They
were very animated about this & came & talked to me
about it after. I was somewhat dismayed that the
observing tutor said I shouldn't have done it
as it was a distraction from the lesson objectives. I
think that the lesson objectives should be partly student led   L1.P5
but understand that I have to do what I'm told
when I'm being observed

Extract 3: Solo-teach Lesson Five - Rory

(F/T) **LESSON 5**   (Solo teach - 60 mins)
SECTION 1:   Pre-lesson
   1. Why did you choose these particular objectives?

I thought this was an appropriate objective for Pre-Intermediate Learners. The topic would lend itself to a communicative approach for the language focus.

   2. How are your materials and activities going to help you to achieve your objectives?

The materials should build on each other throughout the lesson. I plan to recycle the language as much as I can.

   3. How do your stages and activities fit together to make a cohesive lesson?

I've put a lot of thought to the cohesive aspect of the lesson and think each stage is dependent on the previous stage being understood and learnt and so the learners can recycle the language.

   4. What problems, if any, do you anticipate with this lesson (e.g. your use of materials, classroom management, techniques, learner problems) ?

I am concerned about my classroom management in particular to the roleplay which I think may be over-ambitious, however I think it would be a good activity provided I give

L5: P1

5. What contingency plans do you have if any of the above arise?

I have a number of different sets of cue cards that I can give them to learners if I think they are struggling and need more direction.

6. Which part of the lesson are you *most confident* about and why?

I'm most confident about sections 3 + 4 because I am sure these activities will be short and yet will promote some interesting ideas from the learners.

7. What are you most *looking forward to* in this lesson and why?

I'm looking forward to seeing how each part of the lesson fits together and hoping that the role-play will be good.

SECTION 2   After the lesson:

Complete this section after the lesson but __before__ meeting the tutor for feedback.

1. Actual Execution of the Lesson:

Did the lesson go [better than] [worse than] [about the same] as you had anticipated?

Which parts were you particularly pleased with and why?

I was pleased about sections 3, 4 + 5 because these sections of the lesson produced lots of feedback from the learners, generating a wide variety of ideas which was good.

Which parts were you less happy about and why?

I was not as happy with section 1 + 2.

because I think my introduction was weak and the categories game was not appropriate at this stage of the lesson I chose poorly.

What did you most *enjoy* about teaching this lesson?

I enjoyed the feedback stages of the lesson because many of the students were very responsive and gave some witty replies.

3. *Focusing on the Learners:*

How far were the objectives achieved? How do you know?

The objectives were achieved, the learners did get the practice as I could tell this while I was monitoring.

How would you characterise the learners' overall response to the lesson? *(interested, responsive, bemused... ?)*

I would say that the learners were both responsive and interested. A couple of learners asked me questions at the end of the lesson

4. *Focusing on materials* about "shopping problems" they had had.

How successful was the **material** in terms of learning outcomes and learner motivation? *(give details)*

The language game was not successful really though it was a light-hearted way to start the lesson, I would The acetate (for the grid) was a good idea for the image. Generally my materials did motivate the learners and enabled them to achieve the outcomes.

L5: P3

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In retrospect, is there anything that you would do differently regarding the material used in this lesson?

I would not use the categories game and would use a to "word shower" instead.

I would make sure there was sufficient time to set up the role-play more carefully so that
5. *The lesson in hindsight* the students knew what was expected
What, if anything, would you change about this lesson – and how? of them.

The categories game, I would not do this again. I would use a word shower which is a technique I am confident about using, however I was trying different techniques. I would make sure that the the the start of the lesson had a quicker pace to it.

What successful elements of the lesson would you repeat in the future?

I would use the pictures again, both the cards + the photos + the discussion about healthy & unhealthy foods the pair work and group work.

What general conclusions can you draw from this lesson with regard to lesson *planning?* (choice of topic, selection of materials, timing, staging....)

I think the choice of topic was good and my materials were well thought out but I would ensure that the warm-up phase was brief and keep the pace L5: P4 moving throughout the lesson.

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What general conclusions can you draw from this lesson with regard
to lesson *execution*? *(methodology, strategies, management ....)*

That classroom management is central

You are shortly going to be training a colleague to take over this
class. What are the most important things they need to know?

• That this is a large class with a wide range
of abilities, Some of the learners today
were potentially quite demanding characters,
• That it is important that the learners
be given clear instructions about the activities

Note here the main points you want to discuss with the observing
tutor.

• classroom management issues

SECTION 3.   After the discussion with the tutor:
1. The discussion:
How far did the observer's opinions coincide with your own?

The observers opinion were pretty well
similar to mine.

What did you find most instructive about the feedback?

I found it extremely useful to review the information about giving instructions, in particular that I should always give instruction before giving the hand outs.

SECTION 4   Summary

Lesson 5 *Assessment of your progress as a teacher*

a) to what extent have strengths noted in previous lessons been reinforced?

b) to what extent have weaknesses identified in previous lessons been remedied?

c) what have been your main areas of improvement in the series of lessons you have just completed?

a) The observing tutors have noted the following as my strengths — friendly and helpful approach to learners, good monitoring, well-prepared materials and good use of the whiteboard. I have paid particular attention to my use of the whiteboard, ensuring that I section the board into areas, one for vocab that the learners will need to refer to throughout the lesson, other areas for current use, I have made use of different colour pens, I prefer blue and black markers. While studying Slovenian I found that I was reliant on the vocab that the teacher wrote, this has had a big impact on my teaching. I also learnt that it is vital to enjoy the lessons, a friendly and helpful teacher will motivate the learners, so I have made a big effort to always be very welcoming when the learners arrive at the lesson and maintain a friendly and helpful approach throughout the lesson even when I've been totally exhausted.

b) There have been some weaknesses identified which I am addressing, these relate to the clarity of my instructions, classroom management, using my 'voice' effectively and giving sufficient time for feedback. I have remedied many of the classroom management issues, for example, I made specific note in my last lesson not to get involved with a 1:1 conversation with learners, there are one or two learners who had asked detailed and persistent questions in the previous lesson so I said that I would return to that point later when it happened again and made sure that I did return to those learners at the end of the lesson.

c) The main areas of improvement have been my boardwork which is now always well-organised and clear as I've said earlier my experiences as a learner in an unknown language class has had a major impact on my teaching style. My use of the O.H.P. is significantly better, my acetates are now always clear and well-presented. I encourage learners to work in pairs a lot more than I did at the start of the T.P. and my monitoring is now good.

Appendix H: Audio Transcript Excerpts

Extract 1: Interview with Course Tutor (July 6, 2005)

1	**Researcher:**	...of the course, so maybe we could start with you telling me about your
2		background?
3	**Tutor:**	yeah? Well, originally I started off not in language teaching but in
4		speech therapy
5	**R:**	oh right
6	**T:**	and but then I did the Certificate in TESOL here in, when was it? Late
7		80's, mid to late 80's and that was my first step into ESOL and so that, and
8		so this course with the distance learning and four weeks, that's the sort of
9		nature of the course that I know as a Certificate, and it was the biggest
10		learning curve. I mean, I've since done masters and diplomas and various
11		things but I think that Certificate was the biggest learning curve as far as
12		skills development
13	**R:**	Mm
14	**T:**	and after that, I taught in Europe, Denmark, Spain, three or fours years, and
15		then came back and did a full-time, it was a year diploma, um, and it was a
16		joint award for teaching in state schools here and then an advanced tesol
17		course, so that was over a year, and then I've been working here at [AU]
18		since when I had children, so since I think 95. I started, well, I was teaching
19		here and gradually got more and more involved in teacher education and I
20		did a masters course, and um my main role now is electronic e-learning for
21		diploma and MA students so um I've got more heavily involved in teacher
22		education and still do some teaching for in the term time, so there's, at the
23		moment, you know, that's my role, and my main role is e-learning for um
24		efl/esol teachers who are based overseas but who are following one of our
25		courses
26	**R:**	ok. so it's like doing the whole course through distance learning
27	**T:**	yeah, yes
28	**R:**	oh wow
29	**T:**	yes. It's an advanced course, sort of an in-service course as opposed to this
30		course, the Certificate which is pre-service, so we do it in that way because
31		it's very, I think it's, teachers are in-situ, you know, they're in their
32		classrooms, they're working where, in their own contexts and uh applying
33		the assignments to that context rather than coming here and separating them
34		from that, so we don't do a full-time face to face diploma course. Um, A, the
35		market doesn't demand it because people can't afford to take that kind of
36		time off from work but also the sort of academic reason. You know it's an
37		in-service course so the more it can be related to theirown teaching, the
38		better
39	**R:**	well, I've heard a lot in this course about um meeting the needs of the
40		population, the market

41	T:	mm
42	R:	how do you think that balances with what you feel is really effective
43	T:	yeah, you mean the population of teachers
44	R:	yeah
45	T:	it's definitely a market-led course. Um, you know, and the private sector is
46		very much, you know, it's get them on, get them off four weeks. And I can't
47		think of any other profession that would claim that before you started you
48		had nothing, and when you left, you're professionally qualified. It doesn't
49		hang well, really, and I think, you know, the
50		university course has always realized that and so we've always, like I say,
51		the model I've known has always been this course with three months
52		reading plus the four weeks here and we also you know run it part-time over
53		six months, so I think if you see it as uh preparing for your first teaching job
54		as a very first step. It's, you know, that's all it can be
55	R:	do you think that most people see it that way?
56	T:	as in the users?
57	R:	yeah
58	T:	on our courses, I think most people who leave feel happy that they would be
59		ready for their first job.
60	R:	I guess what I mean is do you think they see this as just a first step and
61		not as a final step
62	T:	well, I don't know
63	R:	yeah
64	T:	and for a lot of people it is just a first step and it's like a gap year and
65		they're going to go off and do this for a year and never again and you know,
66		I would feel having gone through the course that we run you know, and be
67		quite confident that they're quit well equipped for that, but I would say that
68		they're well equipped for their first step, finding their feet, getting to know
69		materials, once they get any more, you know once they start thinking about
70		their own practice, you know I would say you would have to go on and do
71		the advanced qualification. Otherwise, you know you never, you're going to
72		stagnate, and it's quite easy, anyone, still you can pick up a course book and
73		you would get a job in lots of places, but professionally that's not and you
74		know, you might get away with that from your own point of view for a few
75		months or a year or but it's not something that if you carried on
76	R:	mmm
77	T:	you wouldn't. And I mean, you know, we don't actually track all our
78		students, um, it's you know, there are a lot of weak courses out there that
79		cause quite alot of problems for the profession, but I think all we can do is
80		just try to you know make a stand for longer courses and um
81	R:	so why even stay with Trinity. I mean, since they have specified this time
82		frame
83	T:	well, really, because internationally, you know you need something with
84		some global recognition
85	R:	mmm
86	T:	you know because they are recognized as a qualification if you look at the
87		adverts for jobs. You know, they wouldn't say, you must have a university

88		Certificate. You know, they would say because a lot of the recruiters for our
89		teachers are English based businesses, you know, in lingua, English first.
90		they are UK based recruiters who have a lot of schools overseas. It all, it's
91		quite incestuous so that the RSA Certificate, Trinity College Certificate,
92		they feed into each other so on the advertisements, they will say, they must
93		those, and the recruiters know the criteria for those qualifications, they know
94		if you're got that, they know what the standards are whereas if they just said
95		I've got a [AU] Certificate, the recruiters wouldn't know what that involved
96		because they can vary so much so it's really a sort of standard, and from our
97		teachers point of view, they do get credits, undergraduate credits, but they're
98		useless because most people are graduates anyway, but it's really to give
99		them, you know, people do this course because they want a job. They want
100		to travel and they want to work, and I think to have dual academic and a
101		professional qualification, we're giving them the benefit of both because
102		without it, you know, I think it would be harder for them, for people to apply
103		for a lot of these jobs because they, they're quite conservative, you know,
104		they, in the past, it was the RSA Certificate, you know, you must have that,
105		and they gradually recognized that the Trinity college Certificate was as
106		good if not better, um and now they tend to say both, so you know if an
107		applicant can say I've got that, and I got it at [AU], I think we're giving
108		them quite an advantage when they're applying for work

Extract 2: Informal Conversation between Course Participants (July 7, 2005)

1	**Laura:**	In the teaching practice bits and theory notes and things we've said and done
2		but there's a bit overlap, isn't there?
3	**Valerie:**	what do you mean by theory?
4	**Laura:**	Things that we've done in class and things that are actually to do with the
5		lessons we're teaching
6	**Valerie:**	oh
7	**Laura:**	Things which actually you've sort of got to fill in and the things that sort of
8		my lesson plans and things like that
9	**John:**	are you guys using the handouts when you do your lesson plans? Are you
10		going by the stuff on the handouts?
11	**Laura:**	um, I'm going by [tutor]'s model, the one she gave us this week
12	**John:**	oh yeah. I used that as well
13	**Laura:**	as close as possible, really (laughs)
14	**John:**	I read the one on objectives. The one that tells you what they expect. XXX
15		but then they get too technical like there's a half page on the difference
16		between XXX and objectives
17	**Valerie:**	yeah?
18	**John:**	it's not necessary

19	Laura:	I showed [tutor] my lesson plan, and she said, Oh, yes, that means that the
20		objectives is so and such and so and such and so and such. And I said: can I
21		write that down, and she said yes, that would be a good thing to write.
22		That's the way of doing objectives
23	Valerie:	XXX
24	Laura:	And this is what we learn. You're far better off when they say they want to
25		see your final plan, you give them a few ideas, (laughs) and then they put
26		them together and tell you how to teach it (laughs) XXX I showed [tutor]
27		first of all, and he said oh, yeah, yeah, yeah, that's fine. And then I showed it
28		to [tutor], and she entirely tore it apart.
29	Valerie:	yeah, she's the one who's more like, it just seems to have a certain thing
30		in mind whereas the others are like, that's fine. Those are good ideas
31	Laura:	XXX are you teaching this evening? But yeah, I mean, I just got this sudden
32		panic that I haven't got enough material which is always sort of the way and
33		what happens if I don't finish by like twenty til
34	John:	are you teaching first or second?
35	Laura:	Second
36	John:	oh, I was gonna say you could give them a longer break
37	(Laura laughs)	
38	Valerie:	all these little things we're learning
39	John:	XXX
40	Laura:	Have you read [tutor]'s e-mail from yesterday?
41	John:	I have, yes
42	Laura:	about how we're all just about to do it entirely wrong and haven't we
43		been missing everything
44	Valerie:	I haven't read it.
45	John:	I read the bit, the bit I was, I was going to kind of just have Valerie doing
46		monitoring and I realized from that that I need to include her a bit more
47	Laura:	Well, that's what we're doing. That's all we're doing (laughs) [Carl] and
48		I sort of read that and we thought well, Well, we'll just interview eachother
49		at the beginning rather than doing it separately, and we'll just say we're
50		team teaching XXX.
51	John:	I don't think that was explained clearly
52	Laura:	I don't think it-
53	John:	it was team teaching but one person's responsible for the second and one
54		person's responsible for the first
55	Valerie:	so how is that a team?
56	John:	and yet it's my lesson, but I've got to include. It wasn't clear. Cause I
57		originally thought team teaching is you both taught on lesson. But is it,
58		I'm not sure
59	Laura:	And then as you say, it said one of us the first half and one of us the
60		second half, so it's a bit in between
61	John:	yeah, exactly. cause if we were both teaching one lesson, we would've
62		approached it a lot differently. Cause we'd have got the same book, looked
63		at the same material and worked out kind of the whole thing XXX
64	Laura:	I think [tutor] can be a bit like this, can't she?
65	[discussion of tutor]	

66	Laura:	And the other thing is that they all say so much to us that we only say
67		things that (unin)
68	John:	Well, I just think the lectures aren't having any effect on me anymore.
69	(laughter)	
70	John:	I can't take it anymore.
71	Laura:	It was really stressful this morning, and it's just like you say, it's just
72		flowing gently over the top of me
73	John:	I just can't see what else there is I can really know or learn (Laura
74		laughing).
75	Valerie:	Do you feel like you already reached the limit of your brain
76	Laura:	yes
77	Valerie:	hmm
78	Laura:	We are a quarter of the way through at this point in time XXX
79	John:	I made a firm decision yesterday that it's not as hard as what it seems. I
80		think we're getting too much information so it's seeming harder than it
81		actually is, and I think if you actually just kind of realize that you are getting
82		so much information but you probably only need ten percent of it. (Valerie
83		laughs) You can slice through it, and the pressure will be off. So that's kind
84		of the way to
85	Valerie:	Well, why do you think they include all of this stuff?
86	Rebecca:	It's so much information, you start thinking oh my god I can never do
87		this, not as in difficulty-wise but time-wise. I think if they like come out of it
88		of the input but have more time with the profiles, the journals and the
89		teaching plans and things
90	Laura:	They're simply expecting, and what's the profile, what's all these words
91		you're supposed to be using in this profile. I wouldn't even understand
92		what half of them mean
93	Rebecca:	What I don't understand is it's like two lessons a week and you've got to
94		plan both of them and then there's tests and then bleh bleh bleh bleh
95	Carl:	XXX I had mine yesterday, so I'm feeling ridiculously cheerful today
96	[Rebecca talks about traumatic, personal things]	
97	Rebecca:	I think the shock of it makes me laugh and then I'm like Oh my god I've
98		got to do all this stuff
99	Laura:	I went out on my bike for three hours last night which was very nice for
100		getting perspective on all these things, but this morning, I'll just have a little
101		playing around in Slovenian, and then [tutor] has been talking to us about
102		something that's gone over the top of our heads and then I'll have a nice
103		chat, and it's all kind of, I guess I should be taking it more seriously
104	Carl:	I reckon everything else will kind of look after itself, even including the
105		teaching actually, but this profile thing is the one thing that we've got to
106		keep going, it's the one thing that's worrying me